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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

VOL. XXXIX, No. 4. APRIL 1939

The Diversity of Co-operative Institutions and their Classification

by

Dr. G. FAUQUET

The study of co-operative institutions and of the conditions of their growth would be easier and more reliable if the statistics relating to these institutions were more comparable internationally. But there are two obstacles to making them so. In the first place, there is the great diversity in the types of co-operative institutions, and the number of hybrid or transitional forms linking up the different types. Secondly, there is the unequal distribution of these various types over the different countries, resulting from differences in the age of their co-operative movements and in their economic and social structure.

In the following pages Dr. Fauquet, who from 1920 to 1933 was in charge of the Co-operative Service of the International Labour Office, discusses these obstacles. He shows how they can be overcome by discarding purely theoretical classifications, examining the actual conditions in which co-operative institutions spring up, and ascertaining and utilising the points of similarity already to be found in the statistics compiled in the different countries.

THE diversity of the institutions which compose the co-operative movement is very marked. Their membership is drawn from different surroundings; they undertake a variety of functions; and their place in the economic system is not uniform.

To describe this diversity is the object of the first part of the present article, which keeps as close as possible to the concrete facts in an effort to avoid any distortion by preconceived opinions or theories. But in any description the way in which the facts are presented and co-ordinated tends to interpret

them, whether of set purpose or not. The attempt made here to give as faithful a picture as possible of the multifarious aspects of the co-operative movement is combined with an attempt to reduce the diversity to order and make it intelligible.

The second part of the article will examine the practical problem of classifying co-operative institutions for statistical purposes; it will endeavour to show how national statistics may be rendered more easily comparable in order to enable more reliable international totals to be obtained.

Diversity of Co-operative Societies

A useful distinction may be made between two principal categories of co-operative societies—those established in urban and industrial surroundings, and those in rural and agricultural surroundings. This classification into two main groups is not free from objection; but among other advantages it has that of calling to mind the origin of the different types of co-operative societies.

The earliest urban and industrial co-operative societies were set up in the last thirty years of the XVIIIth century in Great Britain, and from there the movement spread to other industrial countries and regions. Wage earners and handicraftsmen, whose conditions of life and labour had been affected by the industrial revolution, formed these societies, which included consumers' and building societies, and also workers' and craftsmen's societies for production, labour, credit, and supplies.

The rural and agricultural co-operative societies have a dual origin. Some have a long history, going back to the village communities of the remote past. Others, which owe their existence entirely to modern agricultural conditions, began to develop when peasants and farmers found themselves increasingly dependent on commercial processes, whether for obtaining credit or supplies of fertilisers, seed, equipment, etc., or for marketing their produce in local or distant markets.

All associations of the people, co-operative or other, are akin, through the conditions which brought them into existence and the environment from which they draw their membership. But co-operative societies are marked off from other forms of popular association by one essential characteristic: they pursue their ends by means of economic activity organised by the members themselves. Where an association engages in an

enterprise by which the members expect to satisfy their needs and of which they accept the risks, there we have a co-operative. Every co-operative institution thus combines two elements—those of association and of enterprise. The particular object of the enterprise and the functions it performs in relation to the members correspond to the needs which they have in common and which they consider likely to be satisfied better by a joint enterprise than by individual action.

The surroundings in which co-operative societies grow up being various, the needs satisfied by the joint enterprise or undertaking likewise vary. But the diversity of co-operative undertakings is subject in every case to a general condition, on which the cohesion of the society depends: its membership must be homogeneous, not in an absolute sense, but as regards the functions entrusted to the common undertaking.

If people in a particular environment have many different needs in common, it is possible and even likely that the undertaking will be given a number of functions, but there will be nothing to prevent the formation of a separate undertaking for each function. These specialised undertakings, arising in the same surroundings, will imply associations distinct in law but similar by reason of the identity or quasi-identity of their membership.

The general observations made above justify the assumption that two principal orders of diversity will be found in co-operative organisations—diversity of the surroundings from which their members are drawn, and diversity of the operations which the members conduct through their joint undertakings.

Diversity in respect of surroundings will be taken first, and, as has been suggested, a rough distinction will be made between urban or industrial co-operative societies and rural or agricultural co-operative societies. This summary classification is only convenient in so far as economic development has separated the towns from the countryside and industry from agriculture. The separation is not absolute; and it will in fact be necessary to describe some half-rural and half-urban co-operative organisations and to point out certain features common to town and country.

Urban and Industrial Co-operative Societies

In the towns there are many different types of occupation, and there is usually no connection between work and home

life. In view of the need for homogeneity of membership mentioned above, these two general characteristics of urban society lead to the development of different types of co-operative societies: (1) those which meet the general need for food, clothing, and fuel (consumers' co-operative societies) or the need for dwellings (housing co-operative societies); and (2) those which meet occupational needs.

There is no need to examine the occupational co-operative societies trade by trade. It will suffice to point out that they fall, according to the economic and social position of their members, into two groups, one drawing members from the handicrafts and traditional small trades of the towns (handicraftsmen's and small shopkeepers' co-operative societies), and the other composed of workers in certain industries who have been able to recover their independence by organising their work in common (workers' productive co-operative societies).

Urban Consumers' Co-operative Societies

The consumers' co-operative society is as a rule of pronouncedly working-class origin, and the first societies of this kind were contemporary with early efforts to organise trade unions and friendly societies in industrial centres. It was only subsidiarily that the consumers' co-operative societies in most countries spread throughout the big cities and began to draw their members from all classes of the population, or at least from all the low-income groups.

Some consumers' co-operative societies, particularly those situated in industrial centres, have remained within their original boundaries; others have developed extensively, and there are now big urban and regional societies which cover both towns and villages over wide areas.

Either in order to obtain greater cohesion or to meet the needs of certain ways of living, consumers' co-operative societies sometimes have an occupational basis. There are, for example, special societies of this kind confined to civil servants, railwaymen, bargemen, etc.

In urban and industrial life the household has more restricted functions than in rural life. Consequently the consumers' co-operative society, which supplements or takes the place of the household in certain respects, caters for more extensive and more varied needs in the town than in the country. These needs, which are common to most urban households of small

means, may be satisfied either by special co-operative organisations, such as bakeries, meat shops, dairies, coal-purchasing societies, laundries, and kitchens, or by general co-operative societies which broaden the basis of their activity so as to cater for most of their members' needs.

In all the countries where consumers' co-operative societies have been established in large numbers, they have organised regional and national federations, to which the function of supplying the common needs of the affiliated societies has been allotted. These federations may also be required to engage in educational work and propaganda and to defend common interests and principles. But as a rule separate federations have been established for the function of supply and for the various non-economic purposes respectively.

The dimensions of the national supply centres, or co-operative wholesale societies as they are often called, vary with the degree of development of the consumers' co-operative movement in the different countries. The earliest of them, the English Co-operative Wholesale Society (C.W.S.) in Manchester, founded in 1864, is by far the largest. [1] The total sales of the C.W.S. to affiliated societies reached a value in 1937 of nearly £120,000,000. The C.W.S. employs about 57,000 wage and salary earners in its commercial departments and in some 150 productive establishments belonging to the most varied trades.

The Scottish C.W.S. and the corresponding bodies in other countries are not of the same order of magnitude as the English organisation. But they all have productive establishments and obtain part of their supplies direct from the international market. Further, in respect of some economic processes at least, they have established a vertical organisation starting from the household, more particularly the urban household, and extending further and further towards the sources of supply.

The English C.W.S. furnishes several remarkable instances of this sort of vertical development. Jointly with the Scottish C.W.S., it has acquired and operates tea plantations in India

[1] The foundation of the Co-operative Wholesale Society was followed some years later (in 1868) by that of the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society. The Co-operative Union, the centre for non-economic purposes, includes all the consumers' co-operative societies of the United Kingdom ; the workers' productive societies also belong to it.

On the Continent of Europe, the oldest co-operative wholesale society is the Swiss Union of Consumers' Co-operative Societies, founded in 1890. The Union is the centre for both economic and non-economic functions.

and Ceylon. Its soap and margarine works are supplied from its own factories for the treatment of coco-nut sent from C.W.S. stations in Africa. The following is another example of such development : the English C.W.S. collects in regional depots the hides from the slaughterhouses of the local co-operative societies which sell meat ; these hides are worked up in the C.W.S. tanneries and leather-dressing works, whence they are sent as raw materials to the Society's own shoe and clothing factories ; the output of these factories is taken over by the consumers' co-operative societies.

Housing Co-operative Societies.

In a considerable number of cases, particularly in England, the ordinary consumers' co-operative societies, possessing the necessary funds, have attempted to meet the demands of their members for housing. But the need for dwellings, in England as in other industrial countries, has been satisfied mainly by special housing co-operative societies. These may be classified in four groups :

(1) Societies of the English " building society " type, which are really co-operative saving and mutual credit societies set up with the object of advancing to their members the sums necessary for the construction or purchase of houses. (Some of these societies are permanent ; others—the original type—are " terminating " and disappear when each of the members has in turn received from the joint fund the loan he required.)

(2) Construction co-operative societies, which themselves build houses for sale to their members ;

(3) Tenants' co-operative societies, which build blocks of flats for letting to their members ;

(4) Co-operative societies which build family houses grouped in villages or garden cities (" co-partnership tenants' societies ") and make them available to their members according to rules and contracts giving the occupant a status between that of owner and that of tenant.

This classification is upset by the existence of co-operative societies acting both as credit and as construction societies (a considerable number of " building societies " are of this sort), and of co-operative societies which either sell or let the houses they have built according to the convenience of members.

It should be pointed out that, unlike the consumers' co-

operative societies, which act in a supplementary capacity or as substitutes for the household in limited fields, or even take the place of the household completely (by means of co-operative boarding houses and restaurants), the building and similar societies tend to perpetuate the household. Indeed these societies, when they provide their members with a garden as well as a dwelling, and consequently with the possibility of growing vegetables and raising poultry and the like are maintaining the household in its fullest economic sense.

Handicraftsmen's and Small Shopkeepers' Co-operative Societies.

The characteristic feature of handicraftsmen's societies is the provision of services supplementing and reinforcing the individual work of members. These services vary in character with the needs of the occupation; they may include the provision of credit [1], joint purchase of raw materials or equipment, joint sale of finished goods (and perhaps of by-products, such as hides in the case of butchers' co-operative societies), the use of common plant for processing operations, the establishment of joint shops, shows, etc.

The handicraftsmen's and small shopkeepers' co-operative societies have grown up partly in these urban occupations which are in direct contact with the public (small industries in the food trade, personal services, sundry retail trades, etc.), and partly among craftsmen who receive their orders from larger undertakings, and who strive by co-operative association to keep themselves independent in their dealings with their powerful customers.

Workers' Productive Co-operative Societies.

Productive societies are composed of workers, generally skilled workers, who aim at and succeed in escaping from the position of wage earners by organising undertakings in which they work together and of which they share the risks.

Workers' productive co-operative societies have sprung up more particularly in building, printing, small-scale engineering, and other trades where the capital required is small in comparison with the cost of labour. Some have developed in industries which have moved away from operations in scattered workshops towards concentration of the working force. Just as transitional

[1] See below, p. 443.

forms may be observed between these two methods of organising wage-paid labour, so in the same industries there are transitional forms between what are called handicraftsmen's co-operative societies and the workers' productive societies. [1]

Those workers' co-operative societies producing goods which may be of interest to the consumers' co-operative societies try to obtain orders from them. In England the relations between the consumers' co-operative movement and the workers' productive societies have led to the establishment of co-operative societies of a special type in which the share capital is provided partly by the workers engaged in the undertaking and partly by the consumers' co-operative societies which are its customers. Management is in the hands of a mixed board. After payment of interest on the share capital, surpluses are divided between the two groups, in proportion to purchases as regards the consumers' co-operative societies and in proportion to wages as regards the associated workers.

It is found in certain trades that the organisation of joint operations involves merely the co-ordination of individual work and not the provision of capital. In this case the workers' co-operative societies are of the type known as co-operative labour societies. But it is of course possible to pick out intermediate cases of workers' co-operative societies possessing some equipment, the relative importance of which alone decides whether they shall be classified as productive societies or as labour societies.

The workers' productive societies are genuine industrial undertakings, capable of carrying out a complete set of operations and of marketing products which they have manufactured throughout. Co-operative labour societies are usually sub-contracting establishments.

In some cases a co-operative labour society is set up inside an undertaking. It is then a special form of organisation of

[1] Two instances taken from the Yugoslav co-operative movement will bring out the character of these transitional forms : (*a*) the co-operative society of cabinet-makers of St. Vid, who work individually but have a joint workshop with machines to which each member comes to do his sawing, planing, etc., paying an hourly rate ; (*b*) the nail-makers (home workers) of Kropa, who first of all associated for the joint purchase of coal and bar-iron and for the marketing of their products, and afterwards, in order to keep pace with changed market conditions, set up a factory for the manufacture of bolts and other iron ware by mechanical punches. Some members of the latter society work in the factory and others continue to work at home or are employed alternately at home and in the factory according to the orders received.

labour. The staff of a workshop or service assumes collective responsibility for the execution of its work in exchange for remuneration in a lump sum, which is then distributed according to agreed rules (as in the " companionships " of the printing industry). [1]

Co-operative Credit Societies.

In Europe the most widespread type of urban co-operative credit society is that of the banks set up in Germany under the influence of Schulze-Delitzsch. The bond between their members is not particularly close ; in fact they are essentially banks at the disposal of the low-income groups. This characteristic relates them to the co-operative movement among handicraftsmen and small shopkeepers.

Another type of urban co-operative credit society is to be found in the credit unions which have developed to a remarkable extent in the United States in recent years. In structure and in the conditions under which they operate, these unions resemble the rural co-operative credit funds of the Raiffeisen type. Their principle is to include only persons held together by some bond —employees of the same undertaking or department, members of the same religious denomination, etc. ; on these various levels they obtain the cohesion which in the rural co-operative credit societies follows from the community of village life. The credit unions, which act as savings and credit societies, have proved, like the Raiffeisen funds, effective weapons in the struggle against usury.

Rural and Agricultural Co-operative Societies

General Purpose and Rural Credit Co-operative Societies.

In rural and undifferentiated communities, particularly in the old-established rural society extending over a large part of Europe and Asia, most of the inhabitants of a village have similar means and ways of living. Consequently, their needs for household and farm are the same in respect of credit, of clothes and shoes, of tools, fertilisers, and seed, and of a market for their crops.

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[1] Cf. Charles MARAUX : The Commandite : Co-operative Work in the French Printing Industry, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. XII, No. 5, Nov. 1925 ; Hyacinthe DUBREUIL : *A chacun sa chance. L'organisation du travail fondée sur la liberté* (Paris, 1935).

If, in such economically and socially homogeneous surroundings, a co-operative society is established for a particular purpose, it is clear that the members will be inclined to entrust to it the other duties suggested by their many common needs; or indeed a co-operative society founded in such surroundings may from the beginning undertake many different functions.

The village co-operative societies, which are in some sort the counterpart of the traditional rural community and often maintain close relations with it, constitute more than half of the total number of co-operative organisations in the world. They are usually called co-operative credit societies, because the function of providing credit appears more important than those of supply and sale. Moreover, the functions of the village co-operative society when taken together correspond to those formerly carried on by the middleman from whom it has liberated the poor peasant class—namely the village usurer, whose habitual practice it was to combine lending with the profitable operations of purchase and sale.

While the conditions of rural life render the development of general-purpose co-operative societies possible, they do not hinder the establishment of separate specialised co-operative societies. In certain countries, for instance, the co-operative credit societies abstain from all commercial operations, either spontaneously or in accordance with law. Side by side with the credit societies, and in the same surroundings, other more or less specialised forms of agricultural co-operation arise. Even when the function of providing credit is entrusted to specialised societies, however, these societies are closely connected with the co-operative societies for purchase and sale; indeed, the co-operative credit societies must, for their own protection as well as in the interest—properly understood—of the borrower, be able to judge whether a loan is justified and to supervise its use.

The question whether in a given community it is preferable to establish a single co-operative society with various functions or several specialised societies will depend on a complex of considerations; and the relative importance of each of these may vary from one country and one village to another. For instance, the difficulty of finding enough competent administrators to run several different societies may outweigh the technical advantages of specialisation and separate management.

In regions where most farmers raise one and the same crop,

the co-operative society set up to meet the special needs of this predominating form of production will also undertake less important functions. For instance, in the wheat-growing areas of the United States and Canada, rural co-operative organisation has long been represented by the co-operative elevator; but it is common to find a grocery store, a coal depot, etc., attached to the elevator and belonging to the same association. In the same way, in milk-producing regions a grocery shop is frequently attached to the co-operative dairy.

Agricultural Supply Co-operative Societies.

The need for an organisation to supply seed, fertilisers, agricultural implements, etc., is generally satisfied by co-operative societies of a special type in countries and regions where the progress of agricultural technique has enhanced the importance of such requirements.

Co-operative societies for agricultural supplies may, and frequently do, act as co-operative sales agencies in addition to their principal function. As a rule, however, when marketing becomes important in respect of a particular product, a special unit is established—a co-operative dairy, a co-operative wine society, etc.[1]

It has already been noted that consumers' co-operative societies of urban origin have a tendency to expand outside the town or district in which they are founded. This explains the existence of big consumers' co-operative societies of a regional type. But consumers' co-operative societies of a local type may also arise in rural surroundings, either spontaneously or owing to the influence of co-operative propaganda.

Whether or not they are linked up with the urban consumers' co-operative movement, the rural consumers' co-operative societies must offer their members a selection of goods suited to the habits of life of rural populations; and they will usually find reason to add the function of agricultural supply to their original purpose of providing goods for personal and domestic use.

Again, the agricultural supply co-operative societies may, and frequently do, extend their function of supply to the personal needs of their members and their members' households.

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[1] See below, p. 446.

Lastly, it may occur, and usually does in some countries—for instance, in Finland—that the two functions of supplying agricultural requirements and consumers' goods are performed by the same rural co-operative societies and are regarded by them as of equal importance.

In most countries the co-operative societies for agricultural supplies have set up their own wholesale centres which fulfil for these societies the functions carried out by a co-operative wholesale society for the affiliated consumers' co-operative societies.

It is interesting to note that in Finland the rural co-operative societies have established two distinct centres and the two functions of agricultural and domestic supply, combined in the first stage of organisation, are separated in the second. In England, on the other hand, where the industrial population and consequently the consumers' co-operative movement are larger than the rural population and the agricultural co-operative movement respectively, the C.W.S. acts as centre for the agricultural supply co-operative societies. The latter take over a very large part of the by-products of the C.W.S. flour mills and oil factories. The C.W.S. can also supply them with agricultural implements from its own factories.

Co-operative Societies of Producers of a Given Commodity.

A considerable body of experience has shown that the application of co-operative principles to marketing requires from the members of the society a very high degree of discipline and constant loyalty. These conditions of success can hardly be fulfilled unless the membership of the society is very homogeneous as regards the function performed by the joint undertaking. Homogeneity can best be achieved by the co-operative organisation of sales on the basis of a single commodity. This principle, which had already been worked out in Denmark and other milk-producing countries, is confirmed with particular clarity by the experience of Californian fruit-growers, who have carried its application so far as to form separate groups for producers of grapes, plums, apricots, etc. The same rule, " commodity by commodity ", has in recent years guided the producers of wheat, cattle, etc., in the United States and Canada in their efforts to establish big co-operative marketing societies; these are often characteristically entitled " com-

modity associations "—an expression which brings out better than " co-operative marketing society " the essential nature of such co-operative groups.

Composed as it is of producers of a given commodity, a co-operative society of this sort will attempt, by itself or through auxiliary or related societies, to perform all the functions (with regard not only to marketing but also to supply and service) which make for the highest commercial quality in the commodity and its by-products, and for lower costs.

In the case, for instance, of dairy products, the co-operative society will not be performing its essential function (marketing) efficiently if it merely organises and runs an undertaking for collecting milk, perhaps carrying out certain operations (butter-making, cheese-making, use of by-products, pig-keeping, and extraction of casein and lactose), packing the products, finding markets, and delivering goods, all under the best possible technical conditions ; it must also take in hand the organisation of any collective services which will help to improve the conditions of production of the farms themselves. Thus, the co-operative dairy is led to act—either directly or through auxiliary societies composed in general of the same members—as an agency for supplies (fodder, cattle cake, etc.) or for certain services (veterinary inspection, supervision of milk, selection of stock, insurance against death of cattle, etc.).

Co-operative societies composed of producers of the same commodity thus appear as the type best suited to raise the value of the product by improving conditions of production, by performing all the operations which transform the individual products into a homogeneous mass of merchantable goods, and by using the best methods of marketing.

In less highly developed forms, the co-operative society of producers of a given commodity does not perform the function of marketing, but only one or more of the preparatory functions. A co-operative association of grape growers may be taken as an instance. If the character of the crop and the relations with the market call for the production of wine, the co-operative society will undertake, in its more highly developed form, the operations of joint wine-making, storage, and sale. If the need is not so pressing or co-operative education is less advanced, however, the co-operative wine society may be no more than a storage society, merely remedying the members' lack of appropriate storage capacity, or a co-operative society for

joint wine-making, each member retaining the right to sell separately his share of the output.

Subsequently, the society may extend its functions and shift in its own favour the line of demarcation between the activities which members reserve for themselves and those which they entrust to the joint undertaking. It may even—alone or in association with other co-operative wine societies—perform functions not originally undertaken by the members, such as distillation of spirits, extraction of oil from pips, desiccation of tartrates, etc. Apart from these various functions, the co-operative wine society will often take over that of providing its members with pest-killing substances, sprays, etc.

Rural Co-operative Societies with a Single Function.

Some rural co-operative societies perform a single function only. This is the case when the function meets a need not felt at the outset or to an equal extent by most members of the community or when a separate unit is rendered necessary by the technical methods to be adopted or by the character of the undertaking into which each individual must enter. This applies, for instance, to rural co-operative societies for the provision of electricity, the telephone, transport, local roads, drainage, or irrigation, and also to all the varieties of mutual insurance societies.

According to the classical distinction between goods and services, the co-operative societies belonging to the two types just described, or most of them, are generally classified as " service co-operative societies ", as opposed to co-operative societies for purchase or sale. But this is, in fact, an inaccurate and often a specifically erroneous classification.

Mention has already been made of societies which would require classification as service co-operative societies in respect of some of their normal functions, and as supply or marketing co-operative societies in respect of others. Instances are housing societies, which sell or let (as the member chooses) the houses which they have constructed ; agricultural co-operative societies which sell to their members the smaller articles of agricultural equipment but arrange for joint use of the more expensive machines ; grape growers' co-operative societies, which start with joint wine-making and subsequently undertake collective marketing also. A rural co-operative flour mill or bakery

would be a " service co-operative society " if it used only its members' grain or flour and served only to exchange flour for grain or bread for flour as the case might be ; but in practice a rural bakery often has members who cannot supply enough flour to balance their consumption of bread ; on the other hand, if the output of grain exceeds the local consumption of flour, a rural flour mill may have to market part of its output.

In reality the notion of service may fairly be extended to all co-operative activities. In a society's dealings with its members, the fundamental relation is always that of service and user. Even when the co-operative society is a supply or marketing society, its function is to provide the best possible service for its members.

Co-operative Societies for Joint Cultivation or Division of Land.

The different categories of rural co-operative societies so far enumerated act on behalf of agricultural holdings which, like the small establishments associated in handicraftsmen's societies, remain independent save for the functions they delegate to the joint undertaking. Co-operative farms, on the other hand, correspond as regards their principal characteristic to the industrial workers' productive co-operative societies.

There may also be co-operative labour societies for agricultural or forestry work (co-operative gangs of harvesters, woodcutters, etc.).

Co-operative farms or productive co-operative societies of agricultural workers should not be confused with co-operative societies which associate a number of separate farms for certain operations in common (for example, co-operative societies for mechanical ploughing).

Some agricultural co-operative societies are of a temporary character, their object being to establish separate holdings or to restore individual holdings to a workable state. This is the case with co-operative societies established for the application of agrarian reforms or land settlement schemes, which cease to exist once the land has been divided up, except as auxiliary associations of the farms they have helped to establish.

Rural Handicraftsmen's Co-operative Societies.

In the countries outside Europe where the population is of European origin, the immigrants who set themselves up as farmers do not as a rule engage in other activities, save to the

limited extent involved by their temporary needs as pioneers. On the other hand, the rural inhabitants of old-established countries continue to combine various occupations of an industrial character with agriculture. Economic developments and the growth of concentrated industry have led only to a partial disappearance of these peasant family trades.

The growing realisation of the importance of these industries for the welfare of the rural population has given rise to a movement for their protection and, where necessary, restoration. This movement is responsible for the existence of co-operative societies for home industry (weaving, embroidery, etc.), their function being to provide the peasant families with raw materials and to market their products.

Apart from co-operative societies for home industry, other co-operative societies, some of the handicraft type, others resembling workers' productive societies, and still others intermediate between these types, may also be found in industries which have remained attached to rural life by reason either of the raw materials used or—in some areas—of the inhabitants' specialisation, often going back to the distant past.

Co-operative Societies of the Mutual Aid Type.

The essential feature of co-operative societies of the mutual-aid type is that they establish a bond between members whose economic relation to the common undertaking at any moment or over a period is not the same.

This is the case, for instance, with co-operative credit societies, in which, at any given date, certain members are debtors and others creditors, each member being free to move from the category of borrowers to that of depositors at any time.

In some cases all members belong to the two categories in regular alternation. This occurs in the " beef rings " of Canada and similar groups in other countries, where each week in turn one member contributes a whole beast to be divided among all the members in accordance with fixed rules. Reference may also be made to certain co-operative dairies where each member comes in turn to share in the work of the joint undertaking.

In these two examples of regular alternation, the rights and obligations of each member may easily be determined by rules, and the relations of the members one with another and with

the joint undertaking may be explained by purely economic interest.

In the case of mutual insurance (against fire, loss of cattle, etc.) it is possible, superficially, to derive the whole behaviour of the members from the mere fact that each agrees to the same premium and to equal incidence of the risk. But in mutual insurance the insured person cannot be reduced, as in other types of insurance, to a serial number and certain characteristics expressible in figures. His personal position, his character, and the opinion of his fellow members on these subjects, play a part in the evaluation of the risk and of the damage to be compensated.

In co-operative credit societies, still more, the simple notion of reciprocity (" *hodie mihi, cras tibi* ") is far from expressing the whole complexity of the relations between one member and another and between each and the common institution. In these societies, indeed, reciprocity is neither strictly applicable nor absolutely necessary; each member oscillates between the status of borrower and that of depositor in an irregular and uneven manner. The bond which links members one to another and to the society is not purely economic ; it is inseparable from the whole network of social and personal relationships inside the village community, and reacts favourably on these relationships in so far as co-operative activity strengthens in each member the sense of personal and collective responsibility.

Factors of a non-material character also come into play, to a varying but always noticeable extent, when two distinct but mutually complementary needs are satisfied by transactions inside a single co-operative institution or by relations between co-operative societies of different types. For instance, the relations between agricultural and consumers' co-operative societies which have been set on foot and which each side is attempting to promote [1] are not of an exclusively economic character. The same remark applies to the English workers' productive co-operative societies described above, which are

[1] The development of relations between the agricultural and consumers' co-operative movements is one of the objects of the International Committee for Inter-Co-operative Relations, which was established as a result of the International Economic Conference of 1927 ; this Committee includes representatives of the International Co-operative Alliance and the International Confederation of Agriculture. A further object of the Committee is to keep the co-operative movement as a whole in touch with international institutions, and particularly with the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations, the International Labour Office, and the International Institute of Agriculture.

peculiar in that their members include not only the workers of the undertakings in question but also the consumers' co-operative societies which are their customers.

In all these cases, within the limits laid down by economic compulsion, co-operative institutions tend to give a new lease of life to the old moral concepts of the fair price and the fair wage, in their relations both with one another and with their staffs.

Statistical Classification of Co-operative Institutions

No detailed examination will be made here of the various methods of classifying co-operative institutions which have been proposed or are actually in use.[1] Suffice it to say that three principal objects, sometimes distinct and sometimes combined, may be observed therein.

Some classifications are intended for theoretical purposes; the types distinguished are conceived mainly as instruments for analysing the structure and methods of action of co-operative institutions. Others serve the purposes of description of the historical development of the co-operative movement in the different countries; adherents of this method, which is less systematic than the first, do not regard it as necessary to derive their classification from a few simple notions; they start from complicated data and deliberately refrain from simplification. Certain classifications of a third kind are intended to support preconceived theories, which they consequently reflect themselves; they introduce valuations of co-operative institutions in general or the different varieties of co-operative institutions.

In the first part of this article it was found that there are two principal orders of diversity in co-operative institutions —the diversity of the surroundings from which the members are drawn, and the diversity of the functions performed.

Either of these two orders of diversity may be taken as the principal basis of classification. The division adopted above, into co-operative societies established in urban or industrial

[1] At the Fourth Session of the International Institute for Co-operative Studies, held in Budapest in October 1936, Professor P. Salcius of Kaunas submitted a report containing a critical examination of these classifications. The report and a summary of the discussions to which it gave rise were published in the number for October-November 1936 of the *Revue des Etudes Coopératives*.

and in rural or agricultural surroundings respectively, is based on the first criterion. But the rough and ready character of this division became abundantly clear in the course of the preceding pages. First, the existence of half-urban and half-rural co-operative forms had to be taken into consideration. Reference was also made to a second explanatory factor—the existence in both urban and rural life of differentiated social groups, the character and size of which may vary from one country to another, or in the same country from one period to another. A more profound examination of conditions and ways of living than has been possible here would thus be necessary in order to obtain a complete view of the conditions in which the different forms of co-operative societies were established and grew up.

If the other order of diversity—that of functions—is taken into consideration first of all, it leads to a classification into co-operative societies for production, marketing, service, labour, etc. But in fact a large number—more than half—of the existing co-operative institutions cannot be classified thus; for very often, as we have seen, two or three typical operations are carried out by the same society, either from its inception or in the course of its growth. This classification distinguishes not so much between types of co-operative institutions as between types of co-operative activities.

This second method of classification may usefully be employed for purposes of theoretical analysis. It explains the application of the fundamental co-operative rules, particularly those which make the division of surpluses—and in some societies responsibility and financial obligation—proportionate to the value of the transactions between each member and the common undertaking, and how this application varies with the character of the operations conducted. But in classifying existing types of institutions such a division by functions can be adopted only as a secondary method.

The primary explanation of the diversity of co-operative forms is to be found in the diversity of ways of living; hence the dissimilarity of the needs, simple or complex, which members share and which they attempt to meet by co-operation. Therefore only a classification giving precedence to differentiation by economic surroundings and social groups can throw light on the real position. Such a classification will tend to follow the existing diversity of economic history and human geography; being concrete, it will not be upset by the hybrid or transi-

tional forms that in practice link up the different types between which abstract classifications make a categorical distinction.

In the methods chosen for the presentation of statistics, the same influences may be observed as have led to the adoption of theoretical, descriptive or even tendentious classifications. But classifications for statistical purposes are subject to peculiar conditions, since they must above all be fitted to the practical possibilities both of counting specified units and of classifying all the units counted. They cannot differentiate between all varieties. The divisions and headings they adopt are necessarily the result of a compromise between the need for counting everything and the need for classifying everything.

In practically every country where co-operative institutions have developed, there are statistics giving more or less detailed information on the number, the principal numerical characteristics, and the main activities, of these institutions. Such statistics are very uneven in value, even if comparison is limited to countries where the co-operative movement is already highly developed and of long standing.

The methods by which co-operative societies are counted and the groups into which they are placed for statistical purposes vary widely from one country to another. The differences are due first of all to the state of co-operative legislation. Not all countries have special legislation regulating co-operative societies ; and even where there is such legislation it does not always prescribe registration formalities enabling data to be collected which can reliably be employed for the classification of co-operative societies.

Apart from official statistics, there are also those published by the co-operative organisations. As a rule these organisations only give information concerning the societies affiliated to them, but the data so provided often go into greater detail than those published in the official statistics.

In many countries the official statistics are issued by several different departments or services, each with a special interest in a particular type of co-operative society and each taking a census, periodically or occasionally, through its own officials.

In some cases, co-operative data are collected from the different sources and co-ordinated, after attentive and critical comparison, in the general tables appearing in official yearbooks.

" If ", says Professor Salcius, " we turn over the leaves of official statistical year-books, we find information on the co-operative movement scattered over the chapters allotted to different branches of economic activity—agriculture, industry, commerce, credit, and insurance (cf. *Annuario Statistico Italiano* and *Tschecho-Slovakisches Statistisches Jahrbuch*). Some year-books contain special information on the co-operative movement; in others, all types of co-operative societies are included under the general heading ' undertakings '; in others they are a sub-group under ' commerce '; in others again the consumers' co-operative societies are a separate group, under the main heading, for instance, of ' income and consumption ' (cf. *Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique et du Congo Belge, Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich*, and the Finnish *Tilastollinen Vuosikirja)*. In the Czecho-Slovak and Lithuanian year-books the co-operative societies are placed under the heading ' commerce ', except the credit societies, which are under ' banking and credit '. It would undoubtedly be much more convenient and useful to group all co-operative societies under a single heading. "

The first, and it seems the easiest, step would be to have the work of preliminary classification and co-ordination of co-operative statistics from the different sources done in every country by the general statistical service or some other suitable body, with the aid of the departments and co-operative organisations concerned.

It would also be highly desirable for some degree of uniformity to be introduced in the arrangement of national statistics. Of course established customs, and also excellent reasons based on the particular character of the co-operative movement in each country, prevent complete standardisation. But it would be both desirable and possible to arrive at an agreement similar to that reached under the auspices of the League of Nations for the standardisation of customs nomenclature; such an agreement should cover the establishment of a number of principal divisions and the enumeration and definition of the secondary headings. It would not be necessary to include these secondary headings in national statistics if they were of little importance owing to the absence or small number of co-operative societies of the types in question; where they were included, however, they would have their full value for the purposes of international comparison and addition.

Achievement of the aim in view would not necessitate the invention of an entirely new method of classification. It would be sufficient to make a few changes and clarify a few points, thus rendering the available statistics somewhat more comparable than they already are; for existing classifications already contain many common headings, which it would suffice to define more exactly. On the basis of the common features and resemblances already to be found in the statistics of official or co-operative origin, the Co-operative Service of the International Labour Office has already made an "Attempt to Compile International Statistics of Co-operative Societies", which appeared in the *International Labour Review* of June 1934. This contained the following passage, defining both the difficulties encountered and the methods adopted in utilising sources as they now exist without an international agreement:

> Some sources classify the units counted in groups remarkable rather for their comprehensiveness than for their homogeneity; others carry the analysis much further and distinguish between more numerous and more homogeneous groups. In any case it would not always be possible, owing to lack of information from the sources themselves, to divide the larger groups into smaller ones corresponding exactly to the small groups into which the more detailed statistics classify the societies; and, even if it were materially possible to do so, this would entail a choice between a considerable number of principles of classification such as this article cannot enter into or justify.
>
> In order to be as certain as possible that only units of the same sort are grouped together and totalled, the opposite course has had to be taken—namely, to combine the many headings given in the sources into a small number of wide and incompletely but sufficiently homogeneous groups.

In accordance with this method the different headings to be found in the sources used were divided into four main groups:

(1) Consumers' co-operative societies;

(2) Housing co-operative societies (including co-operative loan and building societies);

(3) Occupational co-operative societies other than agricultural societies (including urban co-operative credit societies);

(4) Agricultural co-operative societies (including rural co-operative credit societies);

A fifth group—"various"—included co-operative societies which, owing to the character of the national statistics, could not be classified in any of the other four groups; there were in fact few of these (one per cent. of the total).

Examination of national statistics (either from official sources or provided by co-operative organisations) showed that certain sub-groups were distinguished in a number of countries where these sub-groups were of particular importance. Thus the co-operative credit societies in groups 2, 3, and 4 were in some cases counted apart; so also were workers' co-operative productive societies and fishermen's co-operative societies in group 3, and co-operative dairies in group 4. The list of sub-groups which can thus be distinguished is not exclusive; a more complete use and a better mutual adjustment of national statistics would enable the number to be increased. [1]

Experience has shown that analysis of national statistics, if conducted on this basis, can be brought to a satisfactory conclusion, provided always that the meaning of the headings is checked and that uncertainties are cleared up with the aid of information from other sources concerning the character and structure of the co-operative movement in each country.

The relatively satisfactory manner in which it was possible to undertake the first "attempt" at international co-operative statistics gave reason to believe that some progress could be made if only a few changes and additional specifications were introduced into the national statistics. The principal obstacles to international comparison are due to the frequency of hybrid and transitional forms between one type and another. There is always room for hesitation between various possible decisions in classifying societies of this sort, even if the choice is limited to a very small number of principal divisions. But this difficulty is not peculiar to statistics of co-operative societies. It is encountered wherever the object is to classify concrete objects and not figments of the imagination; it can only be overcome in practice by recourse to conventions which the statistician bears in mind when interpreting the heading. The essential is that the same conventions should be adopted internationally.

In establishing the main divisions and even the principal

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[1] The following sub-groups will appear in the new statistical tables now in course of preparation and to be published shortly by the International Labour Office: in group 2, a sub-group for co-operative loan and building societies; in group 3, sub-groups for urban co-operative credit societies, co-operative societies of handicraftsmen and small shopkeepers, workers' productive co-operative societies, and fishermen's co-operative societies; in group 4, sub-groups for rural co-operative credit societies, general purpose agricultural co-operative societies, co-operative dairies, co-operative societies of grape growers, and electricity co-operative societies. Further, a special group will include urban and rural co-operative mutual insurance societies. [ED.]

secondary headings, special importance must be attached to the manner in which the different types of co-operative societies are grouped in separate federations. There are two reasons for this. First of all, official statistics and the contents of their different headings can thus be completed and classified by means of the information, often highly exact, which the federations are in a position to collect. Secondly, it may and should be considered that the manner in which co-operative institutions group themselves and constitute federations for common purposes expresses their own affinities and reveals their essential character. In fact they classify themselves; and the resulting scheme is far from arbitrary inasmuch as it corresponds to the real activity of the units to be classified.

The Economic and Social Effects of Industrial Development in Hungary

by

Mark Mitnitzky

The rapid industrial development of agrarian countries in recent years has been studied mainly from the point of view of its effect on the older industrial countries. So far as labour problems are concerned, attention has been focused on the repercussions which this transformation of the world's economy may have on the situation of the workers in the old manufacturing centres, and little consideration has been given internationally to the position of the working class in the countries newly industrialised. There are exceptions to this generalisation—the Soviet Union and Japan, for example, which have attracted attention on account of the large scale on which industrial development has taken place. But less is known abroad of the condition of the workers in some of the European countries which have striven to become industrially self-sufficient since 1918. The following article is devoted to a study of the position of the workers in one such country—Hungary —which in many respects may be taken as typical of South-eastern Europe.

The Workers and their Earnings

THE existence of a few Hungarian industrial undertakings which were known internationally before 1914, and still more the surprisingly rapid development of industry during the last decade, would seem to refute the usual description of Hungary as an essentially agricultural country. A mere glance at the statistics, however, shows that the traditional statement is correct. Only 15.7 per cent. of the gainfully-occupied popu-

lation [1] were engaged in industry at the date of the last census in 1930. The proportion has risen slightly since that date, but there has been no change in the structure of the country, for the proportion of industrial workers was 11.3 per cent. in 1920 and 14.3 per cent. for the same territory in 1910. The Treaty of Peace accentuated the industrial character of the country, for the parts of the former territory—almost two-thirds—which were handed over to neighbouring States were predominantly agricultural. In Greater Hungary the corresponding percentages were 6.1 in 1890, 7.7 in 1900, and 10.4 in 1910. The pre-war growth of industry was slow, and recent years probably constitute the period of most rapid expansion in the history of Hungarian industry.

In 1936, the number of industrial workers (excluding handicrafts) was 265,152. Exact statistics are not yet available for 1937, but the number has probably risen to almost 300,000. The previous maximum of 251,308 was reached in 1929, after which the figure fell to 182,541 in 1932. Since the last business cycle, therefore, it has increased by approximately 20 per cent., and since 1918 by almost 50 per cent. At the same time the volume of production, according to the index of the Hungarian Institute for Market Research, has increased by about 40 per cent. since 1929, which means that the rate of increase in production was twice as great as the rate of increase in the number of industrial workers. This is an interesting position to which further reference will have to be made later.

Other groups which may be treated as industrial workers from the point of view of social policy are workers in mines and smelting works, who numbered 34,457 in 1935, and a section of the workers in the building trades numbering 87,013 in 1930.

The group under consideration thus constitutes only about one-sixth or one-fifth of the gainfully-occupied population, or from 300,000 to 400,000 persons on the average during the last few years. Its importance as a group, however, is enhanced by the fact that it is concentrated in a few localities. In 1936, almost half of the industrial workers (43.5 per cent.) lived in Budapest. This is typical of the structure of the country, the capital having almost a million and a half inhabitants and the next largest city only 135,000.

The level of income of the Hungarian workers is very low.

[1] It should be noted that the figures given in this article are exclusive of the additional territory and population acquired in November 1938.

Table I gives the average annual incomes of workers in various branches of industry. The general average annual income for all industrial workers may be calculated to have been 1,135 pengös in 1936.

TABLE I. AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS IN 1936 [1]

Industry	Pengös	Industry	Pengös
Iron and other metals	1,341	Textiles	944
Mechanical engineering	1,401	Clothing	943
Electric power distribution	1,753	Paper	1,115
Pottery	791	Foodstuffs	983
Wood	856	Chemicals	1,265
Leather	1,137	Printing and bookbinding	2,233

[1] From the industrial statistics in the official Hungarian Statistical Year-Book for 1936 (*Magyar Statisztikai Evkönyv*, published by the National Statistical Office; also issued in French).

The general level of income in the country provides an explanation of these extraordinarily low figures and also an indication of the real value of these incomes within Hungary. The national income per head of the population in Hungary was only 418 pengös in 1928; in the United States it was 3,030, in Great Britain 1,527, in Sweden, 1,078, in France 974, in Austria 646, in Rumania only 384, and in Yugoslavia (1926) only 329 pengös. Roughly speaking, therefore, the level of wages corresponds to the general poverty of the country. This is brought out by table II, which is based on the international comparative statistics of wages prepared by the International Labour Office.[1] This table reveals interesting differences between the ratio of wages to national income per head of population. The relative level of the national income of Hungary is much lower than the relative level of industrial wages [2].

[1] The wage figures for 1936 are here compared with much earlier statistics of national income. This inaccuracy was unavoidable because no later statistics of national income exist for many countries, but as the purpose is to indicate the relative position, and not to give exact figures, the inaccuracy is of little importance.

[2] The same holds good to a less marked extent for Yugoslavia, as can be seen from the figures quoted.

TABLE II. HOURLY RATES OF WAGES IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES IN OCTOBER 1936

(Rates or earnings in Swiss francs [1])

Industry and occupation	Budapest	Vienna	Tallinn	New York	Lyons	London	Belgrade
Mechanical engineering :							
Fitters and turners	0.71	0.73	0.46	3.40	1.28	1.20	0.64
Labourers	0.42	0.55	0.28	—	0.87	0.84	0.28
Building :							
Bricklayers and masons	0.65	0.85	0.45	5.10	1.40	1.40	0.44
Labourers	0.37	0.64	0.31	3.40	1.15	1.05	0.24
Printing and bookbinding :							
Machine compositors	2.23	1.09	0.49	4.46	1.13	1.69	1.29
Labourers	0.96	0.64	0.25	3.48	—	1.25	0.38
Electric power distribution :							
Fitters	0.79	1.01	0.40	—	1.35	1.54	0.48
Labourers	0.64	0.80	0.27	—	—	1.15	0.28
Local authorities :							
Labourers	0.56	—	0.30	—	0.95	1.10	0.24

[1] Calculated from statistics published by the International Labour Office ; cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXV, No. 3, March 1937 : " Wages and Normal Hours of Work in Certain Occupations in Various Towns in October 1936 ".

The national income per head of the population in England is almost four times the corresponding figure for Hungary, but wages in England are in general only about twice as high as in Hungary. The Hungarian worker, low as may be his income in comparison with wages in some other countries, is thus much better paid in comparison with the average income in Hungary than is the English worker in comparison with the average income in England [1]. This, however, must not be taken as indicating a more even distribution of income in Hungary than in other countries ; it must be attributed rather to the fact that the industrial workers in Hungary, and particularly those in skilled trades, constitute a small " aristocracy of labour " as compared with the masses, who are extremely poor. There are only about 300,000 industrial workers, as compared with almost a million and a half agricultural workers whose incomes are very much lower. In recent years agricultural earnings fluctuated between 400 and 900 pengös a year for various groups

[1] As the difference between wages in the capital and in rest of the country is greater in Hungary than in other countries, the comparison in the above table is slightly distorted in Hungary's favour. On the other hand a much larger proportion of industry is concentrated in the capital in Hungary than in other countries (about half of the total number of industrial workers live in Greater Budapest).

of workers, and the average was much nearer the lower figure than the higher one. Low as may be the income and the standard of living of the industrial workers in Hungary as compared with those in other countries, it must be borne in mind that the income of other social groups in Hungary belonging to the middle classes is also very low. According to the report of the Sickness Fund for Salaried Employees, the monthly salary in 1936 was under 50 pengös for 16 per cent. of all commercial employees, from 50 to 100 for 28.7 per cent., and from 100 to 150 for 21.8 per cent. This means that two-thirds of the commercial employees in the country were earning less than 1,800 pengös a year.

But even for the purposes of this brief survey the general picture given above of the level of income of the Hungarian industrial workers and the figure of 1,135 pengös for the general average income are not sufficiently accurate. The distribution of income over different groups of industrial workers has certain peculiar characteristics which are closely connected with the social structure of the country. The first point which must be mentioned is the very marked difference between wages in urban and in rural districts. From this point of view all that is necessary is to compare wage rates in Budapest and elsewhere, for practically all the other towns in Hungary are agricultural rather than industrial centres. Table III gives the average wages for certain occupations in Budapest and in the rest of Hungary.[1]

TABLE III. HOURLY WAGES IN BUDAPEST AND IN THE REST OF HUNGARY ON 1 OCTOBER 1936 [1]

(*Filler*)

Industry and occupation	Budapest	Rest of Hungary	Industry and occupation	Budapest	Rest of Hungary
Iron industry			*Textiles*		
Tinsmiths	62	43	Spinners and weavers	53	36
Fitters	71	53	Cloth dyers	65	44
Smiths	72	45	Labourers	27	23
Labourers	39	17	*Building*		
Mechanical Engineering			Bricklayers and masons	66	50
Iron moulders	78	55	Carpenters and joiners	67	48
Labourers	40	29	Labourers	31	22
Pottery			*Printing*		
Stove setters	90	42	Machine compositors	228	136
Labourers	25	22	Labourers	85	39

[1] Taken from the representative statistics of wages compiled by the National Statistical Office, and published in the Hungarian Statistical Year-Book for 1936, *op. cit.*

[1] The figures in this table are averages for men and women. As a rule, women's wages are approximately two-thirds of the rates paid to men in the same occupation.

It can at once be seen that there is a surprising difference between wages in Budapest and those in the rest of Hungary. In the case of skilled workers, the wages in Budapest are half as high again as those in the rest of the country, and even for unskilled workers the average difference is almost as great. This table shows the very low wages paid to the great mass of unskilled workers, which are between 20 and 30 filler an hour (about 5 cents, or 2½d.). That is the typical wage for a day labourer in the rural parts of Hungary, and it appears also in certain branches of industry in Budapest, to which it has spread from other parts of the country. The above table shows quite clearly that the wages of skilled workers have ceased to bear any direct relationship to the wages of ordinary manual workers. Outside Budapest the wages of the latter group are roughly uniform, and in Budapest they are higher than in the rest of the country—and very much higher—only in cases where there is a strong trade union organisation, as in the printing trade or mechanical engineering, which defends the rights of unskilled as well as of skilled workers. Even so, the disparity between the wages of skilled and unskilled workers in every branch of industry is considerable. This is brought out more clearly by table IV, which gives an international comparison of the ratios between the wages of these two groups.

TABLE IV. HOURLY WAGES OF UNSKILLED WORKERS AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE WAGES OF SKILLED WORKERS IN THE SAME OCCUPATION IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES IN OCTOBER 1936 [1]

Industry	Hungary	Yugoslavia	Finland	Brazil	Argentina	France (Lyons)	Sweden	Great Britain	Norway	United States (New York)
Mechanical engineering	60	44	61	52	62	68	87	74	81	—
Building	58	54	69	53	70	82	75	75	91	67
Printing and bookbinding	43	29	52	—	39	—	74	74	64	83
Electric power distribution	80	58	68	59	72	—	—	—	76	—
Transport	56	—	64	69	59	—	75	75	60	—

[1] Calculated from the comparative statistics of wages published by the International Labour Office. *Cf. International Labour Review, loc. cit.* The figures refer to rates of wages or hourly earnings in the capitals, except where otherwise stated.

A marked difference between the wages of day labourers and those of skilled workers is, as can be seen from the table, typical of agrarian or economically undeveloped countries. The pyramid of wages has as its base a large mass of poorly-paid agricultural workers, followed by a very much smaller group of slightly better-paid day labourers; beyond that the pyramid rapidly narrows, tapering to a point with the skilled industrial workers.

What has been said so far with regard to the situation of Hungarian industrial workers is somewhat contradictory. On the one side there are the extraordinarily low income figures, and on the other the fact that the standard of living of the industrial workers, judged by the average level of income of the country, is relatively favourable. In order to complete the picture, it is necessary to find some objective criterion by which to judge the living conditions of the industrial proletariat in Hungary, and this can be done by considering the real value of their money incomes. But it is no easy matter; for there are no comprehensive surveys of the mode of life of industrial workers in Hungary which could be reproduced in a brief summary, nor is there any completely satisfactory international comparison of real wages. The most successful attempt in this direction is that made by the International Labour Office on the basis of the "basket of provisions".

The following table (V) is based on the statistical data collected by that Office. It shows that the real wages of indus-

TABLE V. NUMBER OF "BASKETS OF PROVISIONS" WHICH COULD BE BOUGHT WITH ONE HOUR'S WAGES IN VARIOUS CITIES IN OCTOBER 1936, AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE FIGURE FOR BUDAPEST [1]

Industry and occupation	Vienna	Tallinn	New York	Lyons	London	Belgrade
Mechanical engineering:						
Fitters and turners	109	145	391	155	191	127
Labourers	129	143	—	171	200	86
Building:						
Bricklayers and masons	140	150	640	180	240	90
Labourers	167	183	717	250	300	83
Printing and bookbinding:						
Machine compositors	51	49	160	43	83	77
Labourers	67	60	293	—	147	53
Electric power distribution:						
Fitters	142	117	—	150	225	83
Labourers	130	90	—	—	200	60
Local authorities:						
Labourers	—	112	—	144	211	56

[1] Calculated from the statistics of the International Labour Office. Cf. *International Labour Review, loc. cit.*

trial workers in Hungary—in so far as real wages are determined by the cost of provisions—are low in comparison with the standards of some countries. On the other hand, they are appreciably higher than real wages in Yugoslavia. For other countries in Eastern Europe adequate statistical data are unfortunately not available, but it is probable that in most of them real wages are lower than in Hungary.

The Process of Industrialisation

The history of Hungarian industry in the two decades following 1918 reflects the violent disturbances to which the country was exposed, and also the extraordinary energy with which industrialists and traders adapted themselves to changing conditions. The dismemberment of the country after the Treaty of Peace, and a succession of extremist régimes, caused the volume of industrial production to fall by 1921 to less than half the pre-war figure. That was the lowest point in the curve of production, after which the development of industry began afresh amid the chaos of inflation, and continued steadily and systematically. Two main stages may be distinguished in this process. The first began soon after the inflation, under the stimulus of new customs duties, and lasted until the depression of 1929. In spite of—or perhaps on account of—the severity of the depression, the foundations were laid for a second period of industrial expansion, since the depression brought about a collapse of the system of international payments and an almost complete cessation of foreign trade. This history is reflected in table VI (p. 467).

Column I in this table gives only a vague idea of the extent of the increase in production, because prices were subject to violent fluctuations throughout the period under consideration. There are, however, various reasons for believing that the pre-war level of production was reached during 1925-1926. Since 1927 the course of development can be traced exactly with the help of the calculations of the Hungarian Institute for Market Research (cf. column IV of the table). Columns II and III clearly reveal the extent to which the process of industrialisation was determined by considerations of commercial policy. The proportion of manufactured articles in Hungarian imports fell steadily, and manufatured articles were replaced by imports of raw materials. At the same time the ratio of imported manufac-

TABLE VI. DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION IN HUNGARY, 1913-1937 [1]

Year	Gross value of industrial production (million pengös)	Percentage, by value, of manufactured articles in Hungarian imports	Value of imports of manufactured articles as percentage of gross value of industrial production	Index of volume of industrial production (1927 = 100)	Number of workers in industry (thousands)
	I	II	III	IV	V
1913	1,904	56.09	—	—	219.3
1921	979	68.41	61.7	—	152.6
1924	1,976	48.07	19.8	—	193.5
1925	—	47.69	20.9	—	—
1929	2,495	38.50	14.05	103.9	251.3
1933	1,734	28.79	5.1	86.6	197.1
1936	2,555	25.45	7.1	132.6	265.2
1937	—	26.22	4.9	141.7	—

[1] The figures are those of the National Statistical Office, with the exception of those in column IV, which were calculated by the Hungarian Institute for Market Research.

tured articles to the output of Hungarian industries fell to an astonishing degree, from 61.7 per cent. in 1921 to 20.9 per cent. in 1925 and 4.9 per cent. in 1937.

One of the most important aspects of the process of industrialisation was therefore the substitution of home products for foreign goods, and this was made necessary by the decline in the value of Hungarian exports of agricultural produce. The significance of this movement for the prosperity of the country can be summed up by the statement that, in spite of the fall in the prices obtained for agricultural exports after 1929 to about half the former level and the cessation of the supply of foreign credit, which had amounted to approximately 200 or 300 million pengös a year before 1929, the consumption of industrial commodities rose again to the pre-depression level.

The increase of about 40 per cent. in the volume of production after 1929 shown in the table does not fully reveal the extent to which industry expanded. If a comparison is to be made with the pre-war period, account must be taken of the fact that as a result of the Treaty of Peace some of the old industries of the country—more particularly important branches of mechanical

engineering and the food industry—died out, and new industries were built up in their place [1]. The growth of the branches of industry capable of expansion was therefore greater than is revealed by the figures for industry as a whole, which include branches in which production declined.

It is impossible to give an exact figure for the increase in the output of Hungarian industry between 1913 and 1937, but it will not be far from the truth to assess it at between 66 and 100 per cent. of the former volume of production. The number of industrial workers, however, did not increase to anything like a proportionate extent. Leaving out of account fluctuations immediately after the war, which were due in part to political conditions, the number of industrial workers did not again reach the pre-war figure until 1926, about the same time as the volume of production returned to its pre-war level. If handicraftsmen are included, there was practically no increase during the period 1927-1937, and in industry in the narrower sense the increase was barely 25 per cent., though the increase in the volume of production during the same period was about 40 per cent.

The explanation of this surprising fact must be sought in the process of rationalisation which was carried out in Hungary at the same time as the process of industrialisation. The extent of rationalisation can be seen from the following index figures of the volume of output per worker in industry :

1913	100.0	1929	136.3	1933	153.7
1921	73.9	1930	142.7	1934	156.7
1925	108.0	1931	144.4	1935	156.9
1927	128.0	1932	158.2	1936	149.9 [1]

[1] For the period after 1927, these figures are based on the calculations of Dr. VARGA, who built up the whole system of statistics of market conditions in Hungary. For the period before 1927, the figures are based on careful calculations by Dr. VEZÉR, of the Hungarian Institute of Market Research, who also gave valuable assistance in the preparation of other statistical data.
On the question of rationalisation, cf. VARGA István : *Adalékok a magyar gyáripar helyzetének konjunkturális alakulásához* (" Contributions to the Study of the Economic Development of Hungarian Manufacturing Industry "). Budapest, Hungarian Institute for Market Research, 1935 (with a German summary).

It will be seen that during the last few years before the depression Hungarian industry showed an appreciable increase

[1] The structural change in industry is reflected in the following figures : the proportion of workers in the mechanical engineering industry in 1913 was 20.3 per cent. of all industrial workers, but in 1936 it was only 11.9 per cent. The corresponding percentages for other branches of industry were :

Industry	1913	1936
Pottery	15.0	10.0
Food	18.5	13.4
Textiles	7.3	24.7

in productivity, but that this development came to an end in 1932.

The slight increase in the number of workers during the period of industrialisation would suggest that there was some modification of wage conditions, but in fact the rapid expansion of production did not lead to any rise in the level of wages. The most accurate basis for calculating the wage level in Hungary is to be found in the industrial statistics showing the amount of wages paid and the number of hours worked, from which one can calculate the following index of average hourly earnings, which is compared with the index of real wages of industrial workers compiled by the Hungarian Institute for Market Research.

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Money wages :	100	103.7	105.6	105.6	100	92.6	88.9	88.3	81.5	83.3
Real wages :	100	101	103	116	119	115	120	117	110	105

It will be seen that up to the time of the depression money wages tended to rise, but during the depression the curve fell steeply, and the decline continued during the first years of the recovery. In 1936 the fall in wage rates stopped, and there was a slight improvement, but this remained very limited in extent in spite of the acute shortage of workers in certain industries in 1937. The course of development of real wages was much more satisfactory. In spite of the rapid fall in money wages, real wages improved, and reached their maximum almost at the same moment as money wages reached their lowest level. During the industrial recovery of the last few years real wages declined as the prices of foodstuffs rose, but they are still higher than in 1929.

In order to appreciate the importance of these figures, a comparison must be made between wages at the beginning of the period of rapid industrialisation and those prevalent before that time. It is not easy to make a comparison with the pre-war period, because there are very few reliable statistics, and those available are in some respects conflicting [1]. The one thing that is certain is that money wages in 1927 had reached a considerably higher level than that of 1912-1914. The extent of the difference varies from 10 to 100 per cent., but it will

[1] A collection of data of this kind will be found in ILLYEFALVI I. Lajos : *A munkások szociális és gazdasági viszonyai Budapesten — Die sozialen und wirtschaftlichen Verhältnisse der Arbeiter in Budapest* (Budapest, Municipal Statistical Office, 1930), pp. 302 foll. and 356 foll.

not be far from the truth to assume that nominal wages at the beginning of the second wave of industrialisation were about one-third higher than at the earlier date.

This spell of industrialisation lasted for ten years, of which the first three fell in a period of trade recovery, followed by three years of depression and another four years of recovery. It was only in the first of the recovery periods that the level of wages in Hungary followed the general trend of economic development. The movement was suspended by the depression, and did not revive when the curve of business began to rise again. In this respect it differed from the ordinary cyclical movement of wages. At the end of the second stage in the cycle the level of money wages was lower but the level of real wages slightly higher than at the highest point reached during the previous boom period.

This unusual trend of wages is symptomatic of the fact that from 1929 to 1933 the process of industrialisation in Hungary was affected by something more than a mere cyclical depression. Much of the old basis of the Hungarian economic system was permanently destroyed, in part by the long-continuing slump in the prices of agricultural produce, and in part by the cessation of investments of foreign capital. An extensive process of impoverishment set in. The disastrous effects of this situation on the employment market were most severely felt by the most important section of Hungarian workers—the agricultural labourers. Their wages fell to an incomparably greater extent than those of industrial workers. The workers in industry, as compared with those in agriculture, were thus favoured during the depression. It is true that industrialisation was not able to raise the money wages of industrial workers, but during the years when the Hungarian economic system was painfully adapting itself to changed conditions there was a rise in the standard of living of the workers in the towns, except in so far as they were affected by unemployment.

The Causes of Low Wages

Low wages indicate an excessive supply of labour, and this is actually the case in Hungary. But to speak of an excessive supply of labour is to use a somewhat unscientific term, with no exact economic connotation; for any given relationship between supply and demand in any market may be called

disproportionate. An attempt will be made in the following pages to bring out the economic significance of the assertion that the supply of labour in Hungary—as in most of the countries of South-eastern and Central Europe—is excessive.

In Hungary, as in the countries of Eastern Europe, the population is increasing at a rather rapid rate [1]. According to the 1930 census, the population of Hungary was 8,688,000, and there has been an increase of just over a million from 1920 to the present time. This means that the population is increasing at the rate of about 60,000 annually. The possibilities of employment for the additional workers in the rural areas are limited, because the available land was already thoroughly cultivated even before the war, and the safety valve of emigration, which offered some slight relief, was closed after the war. The density of population—and this is a condition peculiar to Hungary in this part of Europe—is extraordinarily high. The number of persons per square kilometre is 96, which may be compared with 85 in Poland, 64 in Rumania, 59 in Yugoslavia, and 76 in France. The only possibility of finding employment for additional workers in production is therefore an increase in producing power by means of the investment of capital, but in view of the poverty of the country the accumulation of capital is very slow. Before 1929, the lack of capital in the country was to a considerable degree counterbalanced by large imports of capital, some of which, however, was put to unproductive uses. In the last few years, while the Hungarian economic system has gradually been recovering, the industrial companies which were doing good business, and to a lesser extent the middle classes in the towns, have again been in a position to save a certain amount, but it will readily be realised that the capital thus accumulated is not nearly sufficient to finance the provision of employment for the growing population. The most optimistic estimates of the accumulation of capital during the last three years put the average figure at 300 million pengös a year. In reality, the average amount of capital accumulated annually over the last ten years, allowing for the years of depression and deducting all savings not used for increasing productive capacity, cannot be more than half of this estimate. That would mean that the volume of new capital available

[1] Cf. " Custos " : " Hungary's New Economic Start ", in *Hungarian Quarterly*, Vol. I, 1936, p. 56. This is the best short survey of the economic problems of Hungary for foreign readers.

for production would be equal to about 2,500 pengös per head of the annual natural increase in the population. The capital required per worker in industry is much larger than that figure. The amount of capital per worker employed in industrial joint-stock companies in 1936 may be estimated at about 8,000 pengös.

The heavy pressure of population and the slow rate of capital accumulation are the ultimate causes of the low wages in Hungary. These two circumstances are certainly responsible for the low level of income to a much greater extent than the degree of labour productivity, which is entirely satisfactory in modern industrial undertakings with the existing technical equipment. The accumulation of capital has always been a task for the urban centres in Hungary, while the natural increase in population comes from the rural districts, if only because the largest section of the population is engaged in agriculture and the birth rate in the towns is low. There is a definite movement from the country to the towns, and in view of the disproportion between agricultural and industrial wages that movement would be much more marked if there were greater opportunities of employment in the towns. The sons and daughters of agricultural labourers and the poorer peasants provide at the present time an inexhaustible supply of industrial workers.

In spite of the deplorably low wage rates that at present exist in agriculture, the agrarian proletariat is not fully employed. The constant unemployment, although it is often obscured and is difficult to measure because of the special conditions in rural districts, has increased considerably since the war. Before the war an agricultural worker worked on the average for 220 days a year, but now his employment has fallen to about 180 days.[1] A careful investigation led Dr. Mátyás Matolcsy to estimate the degree of employment of agricultural workers in 1930 at 76.2 per cent.[2] This agricultural unemployment accounts for the present level of agricultural wages, and is also ultimately responsible for the low wages paid in industry. The wage of an unskilled industrial worker bears a direct relationship to the level of wages in rural districts, from which there is a constant flow of labourers to the factories. The economic influence of

[1] I. Csiky and others: *Struktur und Verfassung der ungarischen Landwirtschaft*, p. 232. Budapest, Darányi Ignác Agrártudományi Társaság, 1937.

[2] Matolcsy Mátyás: *A mezögazdasági munkanélküliség magyarországon — Die Landwirtschaftliche Arbeitslosigkeit in Ungarn.* Budapest, Hungarian Institute for Market Research, 1933 (with a German summary).

these facts is reflected, as was seen above, in the striking disparity between wages in Budapest and elsewhere in Hungary, and between the wages of skilled and unskilled workers in industry. The reason why the wages of skilled industrial workers are much higher than those paid in agriculture or to industrial labourers is that it is very difficult for a member of the agricultural proletariat to become a skilled worker in industry. Notwithstanding the rapid development of industrial self-sufficiency in Hungary, it is only in rare cases that the gradual increase in the number of industrial workers has enabled workers originally employed in agriculture to improve their position and become skilled workers in industry. Even if there were a considerable shortage of workers, it would be difficult for the sons of the village to make this change, because of their lack of industrial training and their inability to attend technical schools. In addition to the purely economic reasons which militate against migration from the country to the towns, there are others which reside in the nature of Hungary's traditional institutions. Many Hungarian workers possess dwarf holdings, which are usually not even sufficiently large to keep the family supplied with vegetables, but the owners do not wish to give up their land or abandon the hope of becoming peasants at some future date. The attitude of mind of this rural proletariat is entirely agricultural, and their economic hopes find expression in terms of units of land rather than in terms of money. They are so deeply attached to the soil and to agriculture that they would probably often let slip favourable economic opportunities which involved taking a decision to leave the home village. Statistics show that most of the industrial workers in Budapest are the sons of industrial workers or of independent craftsmen. Of the peasants who succeed in entering the higher ranks of industrial workers, the majority are the children of well-to-do peasants living in the immediate vicinity of the capital. This situation cannot change until industry expands and factories spring up in other parts of the country.

There is of course also permanent unemployment, quite apart from cyclical unemployment, among the industrial workers, in spite of the limited sources from which they are drawn. In view of what has been said above, it will readily be understood that unskilled industrial workers sometimes lose their jobs under the pressure of the competition of rural workers, and that there is a constant supply of day labourers in industrial

districts who have already been uprooted from their villages and lost all economic touch with their country homes. There is also permanent unemployment among skilled workers. Figures compiled by the trade unions, which refer solely to workers of the old industrial stock, usually experienced skilled workers, show that unemployment among members remained higher than 10 per cent. during eight of the last ten years. This shortage of employment may be attributed mainly to the structural changes in Hungarian industry since the war, as a result of which the number of workers employed in mechanical engineering, the food industry, and the printing trade, is still lower than in 1913. Moreover, as a result of the predominance of the textile industry in the process of industrialisation, the course of development has been such that the shortage of unskilled and semi-skilled workers has become more acute than the demand for fully-skilled workers. That is why, despite the fact that skilled workers form a self-contained social group, there has been no constant general shortage of skilled labour during the last decade of industrialisation. This fact had a decisive influence on the wages of industrial workers.

In a country such as Hungary, in which for long periods, even in times of comparative prosperity, it is impossible for all the available workers to find remunerative employment, where the level of wages is therefore not fixed at the point at which all the available workers can find employment, and where, on the other hand, unemployment is not the consequence of firm opposition by the trade unions to any reduction in wages, the general level of wages is determined not solely by economic factors but to an equal extent by social considerations and the prevailing opinion as to what level of wages is equitable, just, and usual. The limits within which these social factors can exercise their influence are naturally fixed by economic circumstances. In particular, the poverty of the country as a whole fixes the upper limit. With regard to the lower limit—and it is the more important one in a country with permanent unemployment—the generally accepted view of what is the lowest wage that can be tolerated on social grounds will determine the extent to which the remuneration of workers is liable to fall under the pressure of competition from those who are unemployed. If this were not the case, wages would obviously fall to a level (probably inconceivable in practice) at which there would be no more unemployment.

Such a situation, in which wages are determined by social considerations, is naturally possible only if the demand for labour is very inelastic. If a slight fall in wage rates would lead to a considerable increase in the volume of employment, opinion would not object to these lower wages, and the needs of production would probably outweigh any qualms as to the glaring inadequacy of wage rates. In fact, however, the demand for labour in Hungary is relatively inelastic. In agriculture the reason for this is the gradual decline in the yield of the soil. In industry the chief reason is the lowness of wage rates, which, combined with the relatively high cost of raw materials, is reflected in the surprisingly small fraction which labour costs represent in the total cost of industrial production. On an average during the last ten years this fraction was less than 12 per cent. for industry as a whole, and even in mechanical engineering, where the labour factor is relatively important, it was only about 20 per cent. Great as is the influence of the comparative level of wages on the competitive power of Hungarian industry, slight changes in the wage level have little effect on the volume of production. A change of 10 per cent. in wage rates would not produce a change of more than 1 per cent. in the total costs of industry as a whole, and in any case the Hungarian economic system is so constantly exposed to the influence of such other factors as radical changes in taxation rates, frequent alterations in the conditions of foreign trade, successive revaluations of the currency at short intervals, and the possibility in many cases of passing on the burden of increased costs, that the effect of minor fluctuations in wage costs is not so seriously considered as in countries with more stable economic conditions.

The fact that the level of wages is determined by social conditions rather than by the ratio of supply to demand at any given moment has two important consequences. It means that wages are very stable and tend to settle for a long time at a level approved by prevailing opinion, and it also involves particularly violent fluctuations in wages if the basis on which they were formerly fixed happens to collapse. This striking combination of rigidity and instability is characteristic of the wage curve in Hungary. The direction in which these forces will act depends on the social situation at any given time. From this point of view the remarkable collapse of wages during the depression, to which reference was made above, is typical.

At that time there was a complete transformation in the economic position which produced a revolutionary change of opinion as to the proper rates of wages and thus made possible a departure from tradition. The collapse began in agriculture, where the wages of day labourers fell very rapidly to half their former figure as a result of the agricultural depression, and the movement then spread to industry. It was owing to the predominant influence of non-economic factors on the determination of wages that the change in wage rates affected practically every branch of the Hungarian employment market. Some idea of the position can be obtained from the following table.

TABLE VII. PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN THE NUMBER OF WORKERS EMPLOYED AND IN AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES FROM 1927 TO 1932 AND 1936 [1]

Industry	Percentage of increase or decrease in employment since 1927		Percentage of increase or decrease in hourly wages since 1927	
	1932	1936	1932	1936
Iron and other metals	— 17.7	+ 8.7	0.0	— 8.6
Mechanical engineering	— 45.9	— 7.3	— 10.3	— 16.2
Electric power distribution	+ 3.4	+ 5.6	— 4.1	— 13.7
Pottery	— 50.4	— 25.6	— 14.9	— 31.9
Wood	— 42.0	— 8.2	— 18.9	— 34.0
Leather	+ 16.6	+ 53.8	— 8.9	— 19.6
Textiles	— 1.4	+ 54.5	— 2.5	— 7.5
Clothing	— 8.8	+ 29.5	— 17.9	— 28.6
Paper	— 7.1	+ 34.6	— 5.7	— 22.6
Foodstuffs	— 22.8	— 9.3	— 2.2	— 17.4
Chemicals	— 4.1	+ 28.1	0.0	— 12.7
Printing and bookbinding	— 24.4	— 16.6	+ 9.2	+ 3.7
Industry as a whole	— 25.9	+ 7.6	— 7.4	— 16.7

[1] Calculated from the statistics of production in manufacturing industry compiled by the National Statistical Office.

The first point that may be noted is that, with the exception of the iron industry, in which the two or three leading large-

scale undertakings tried to refrain from reducing wages even during the depression, and the printing industry, in which the trade unions are very strong, wages fell in every branch of industry, although in many cases the curve of employment rose. In this connection the falling trend of wages in the textile industry, which began even before 1932, is particularly striking, for there was scarcely any decline in employment in that industry. Similarly in the leather industry wages dropped to a very marked extent although at the same time the volume of production increased. In 1932, when the economic depression was at its worst, the extent of the decline in wages in the various branches of industry corresponded very roughly to the extent of the decline in employment. The details of the movement, however, clearly show the influence of social factors. In mechanical engineering, where half the workers had to be dismissed as a result of the depression, the fall in wages was only 10 per cent., because in that industry the pressure of the great mass of unemployed unskilled workers was less strongly felt than elsewhere, the psychological power of resistance of the workers was strong, and their trade union organisation was more powerful than in other branches. In the clothing industry, on the other hand, where the workers have less organised power of resistance than elsewhere, a decline of less than 10 per cent. in employment was accompanied by a fall of 17.9 per cent. in wages.

As was mentioned above, wages continued to fall after 1932 in spite of the increase in the volume of employment and the change in the trend of the cost of living which occurred shortly afterwards. An increase of about a third in the number of persons employed as compared with the previous boom period went hand in hand with a fall of 20 per cent. or more in wages. This is the clearest proof of the decive influence of non-economic factors in the fixing of wages—an influence which ignores economic developments and finds its expression in changes of opinion as to the proper level of wages.

The importance of social factors in determining the level of wages in Hungary can be defined more exactly in the light of what has been said above. The view that these factors are the dominant ones is true in general for the basic stratum in the Hungarian employment market—the masses of unskilled workers in agriculture and industry among whom there is always invisible or visible unemployment. Even in rural dis-

tricts, however, a sudden local shortage of workers often occurs as a result of weather conditions, irregularity in harvests, etc., and for a time purely economic factors become preponderant in the employment market in question and lead to violent fluctuations in wages in certain districts. Independently of the dominance of social influences in fixing the level of wages of agricultural labourers and unskilled workers—and therefore indirectly also the wages of the corresponding industrial workers—social factors play a particularly decisive part in the determination of wages in industry. Reference has already been made to the importance of trade unions in some occupations ; in the case of printers, for example, the unions are so strong that the wages paid to workers in that occupation in Hungary are higher than those paid in France, for example. Mention must also be made of the policy of stable wages in many large undertakings ; these wage rates were laudably maintained during the depression, just as was the case with certain groups of workers on large estates where whole families have lived for generations in the service of the same employer. As a corollary, there was very little increase in wages in these undertakings when a general rise in wages occurred. This is one of the circumstances which serve to explain the striking fact that in the boom period of recent years, notwithstanding the considerable shortage of skilled workers at certain times from 1937 onward, there have been very few cases in which wages rose. The most important factor in this connection, however, was opposition to increased wages on grounds of economic policy ; for in view of the serious position of Hungary's balance of payments every effort had to be made to maintain the ability of Hungarian industry to compete in the export market and to avoid as far as possible any increase in the internal price level.

For this purpose the Government adopted various far-reaching measures of legislation to regulate working conditions in 1936 and 1937. As the requirements of economic policy precluded an increase in wage rates, the Government took steps to prevent the level of working conditions from falling below a certain limit, and imposed severe penalties for infringements of the law, including imprisonment in particularly serious cases. It is true that these measures, which applied only to industrial workers, served to accentuate the difference between the economic position of the agricultural proletariat and that of the urban workers, but the Government was obliged—quite apart

from the question of political opposition—to realise that economic conditions were much more favourable to social legislation in industry than in agriculture.[1] In accordance with the new legislation, in the introduction of which a leading part was played by the Minister of Industry, Mr. Géza Bornemisza, joint minimum wage boards were set up for the various branches of industry, and the 48-hour week was gradually introduced by a series of Orders. As a result of these measures the 48-hour week had been applied at the end of 1938 to 94 per cent. of industrial workers, excluding building workers. In addition workers are now entitled to a holiday with pay. This means a gigantic step forward in social policy in Hungary, and the new legislation provides the workers with some compensation for the low standard of living in the country. The main influence of these measures on wages is to be found in the fact that the levels of income of workers in Budapest and in the rest of the country, in small undertakings and in large undertakings, have become more nearly the same. The lowest wages have been raised, while the higher ones as a general rule have remained unchanged. A limit has been placed to the possibility of exploitation of the workers by the employers when the employment market is over-supplied; and the influence of social factors in determining wages has been strengthened. The decision as to what minimum wage level is socially acceptable is no longer left to opinion but is in the hands of the Government and has become a matter for public discussion. There is therefore every hope that the conditions of the lowest stratum of the wage pyramid will be improved, and a guarantee is provided that wages will not fall below the usual minimum figures.

Was Industrialisation Economically Sound?

Whatever the results of industrial development may have been, there can be no doubt that the industrial workers were bound to profit by it, since their conditions of life would certainly have been less favourable but for the rapid expansion of industry, on the assumption that industrial development was

[1] In the case of agricultural workers the most important step forward that has been taken in recent years is the introduction of old-age insurance, which was decided upon in the winter of 1938. The most important social advances that were made from 1936 to 1938 were for the benefit of salaried employees. They included the introduction of a 44-hour week and holidays with pay. The Government was also given power to fix minimum wages, including salaries. The Minister of Industry, in accordance with the proposals of the competent board, fixed minimum salaries for employees in industry, which came into force on 16 November 1938.

economically sound. If it was a mistaken course dictated solely by political considerations, it must in the long run produce economic disadvantages even for the industrial workers. We must therefore consider whether the visible gain in the provision of employment was not counterbalanced by reverses in other directions, such as a rise in the cost of living or heavy losses in the export trades.

There are two problems involved in these questions. The first is to ascertain whether industrial development was in accordance with the natural conditions of the economic system or the result of artificial protective measures. If the latter view is correct it is at least a reasonable presumption that industrial development was a mistake from the point of view of the economic system as a whole. That is, however, only a presumption, and as the answer to the question is uncertain we must consider the second problem—whether the advantages of industrial development, in so far as the conditions for it were created artificially, were greater than its disadvantages.

There are many reasons for believing that the natural conditions were favourable to the rapid development of industry and that its expansion would therefore have been possible even without protection. The most important indication of this is to be found in the existence of cheap labour that was entirely unemployed. This supply of labour was available not only for manual work but also for managing, organising and technical functions. The collapse of the Empire had left a large middle class, formerly engaged in the trade between East and West, without any useful task to perform, and this group provided a supply of very cheap and adaptable technical workers and commercial employees who rendered valuable services in the new industry of the country.[1] Another circumstance that favoured industrial development was the fact that agricultural output could have been increased only with great difficulty and at very great expense, which would have meant a sharply rising curve of costs. Hungary was a country in which agriculture had long been developed and where no virgin soil was available, nor could the ratio of arable land to pasture land be altered to any appreciable extent. Technical methods in agri-

[1] In the literature on international trade frequent reference is made to similar circumstances in Germany, where a well-trained staff of poorly-paid chemists and scientists was the decisive factor in the expansion of the electrical and chemical industries of the country. Cf. for example Gottfried HABERLER: *The Theory of International Trade* (London, 1936), p. 193.

culture were in some cases at quite a high level, while in other cases—among the peasants, for instance—years of education would have been required to improve them. There were very few cases in which artificial fertilisers and intensive cultivation could be used without making the cost excessive as compared with the additional yield. The development of agriculture by the normal application of the various factors of production was therefore possible only within comparatively narrow limits.

The difficulty of finding employment for the surplus population in agriculture was made more acute by the great change in technical methods of agricultural production in America which appreciably reduced the ability of the European agricultural States to compete in the wheat market. This transformation, which took place during the twenties of this century and is referred to by many writers as " the agricultural revolution ", was the result of the introduction of tractors and combines and the utilisation of new types of wheat with which it was possible to develop large areas (particularly in Canada) that had hitherto not been cultivated. The cheap intensive cultivation of wheat, however, could not be adopted in Europe, partly because of the nature of the soil and partly because of the conditions of land tenure. [1] The productivity of the European wheat-growing countries declined in comparison with that of their American and Australian competitors, and thus the advantage hitherto possessed by the one-sided agricultural economic systems of the countries of South-eastern Europe was lost. The outward expression of this was to be seen in the fact that a smaller quantity of foreign industrial commodities was obtained in exchange for each unit of exported wheat, although there was no appreciable fall in the cost of wheat production. These were natural reasons which would undoubtedly have

[1] A useful summary of the material available on this much-discussed question can be found in *The Course and Phases of the World Economic Depression* (Geneva, League of Nations, 1931), pp. 42 foll. It will suffice here to refer to the significant statistics of the sale of American tractors. Of 142,000 tractors sold, 100,000 went to the United States, 5,000 to Argentina, 21,000 to Canada, and 4,000 to Australia. Europe, excluding Russia, took only 8,000. The figures for the development of wheat production reveal the situation equally clearly. The index figures (1909-1913 = 100) for 1925-1930 are :

Europe (excluding Russia)	98.9
Canada	214.8
United States	119.7
Argentina	165.0
Australia	172.0

Cf. *The Agricultural Crisis* (Geneva, League of Nations, Economic Committee, 1931), p. 24.

promoted the growth of industry quite apart from a commercial policy of isolation. Even if freedom of international trade had continued to exist there would have been a steady development of industry. It is impossible now to estimate what the extent of the expansion might have been in those circumstances. All that can definitely be asserted is that autarky greatly promoted the expansion. Otherwise, a large number of those branches of industry which might have come into being under natural economic conditions would probably not have been created—that is, many of those undertakings which are now in a position to compete with those of foreign countries would not exist. The policy of customs duties and exchange control therefore served an educational purpose, though of quite a different nature from that served by the protective tariffs in the industrial countries of the West.

Central Europe required a few years' breathing space in order to master the technical methods and the system of organisation existing in foreign countries. This consideration however was relatively unimportant compared with the fact that tariffs provided some compensation for the absence of a sense of security. The States of South-eastern Europe had not recovered from the psychological effects of the war. They had suffered under the Treaties of Peace, inflation, and revolutions, and they had never been free from social unrest since 1918. Frequent and sudden reversals of economic policy kept changing the market situation. All these factors meant a tremendous increase in economic risks and prevented the launching of many industrial schemes which would have come into being under the same economic conditions if the social and political atmosphere had been more favourable. Duties or other methods of keeping out foreign competition, and the various special facilities and guarantees provided when new undertakings were founded, not only served to reduce or do away with the risk of competition but also gave industrialists a hope that their profits would be so large that the invested capital could be written off in a relatively short time.

In so far as the policy of tariffs and exchange control was intended merely to give this sense of security, industrialisation was in accordance with natural economic conditions, and to that extent there could be no doubt of justification. But the particular form in which industrialisation took place was accompanied by a shift in the distribution of income, the social

consequences of which could not be ignored. Simultaneously with the setting up of new centres of employment, incomes from invested capital came into existence, and these imposed a heavier burden on home products than had existed on the foreign products formerly imported. Even when the cost of production was the same as abroad the existence of a monopoly frequently prevented any very serious competition, the effect of which on prices would have been favourable to the consumers.

It must be confessed again that it is quite impossible to express an opinion as to what fraction of Hungarian industrial development consists of new industries in the creation of which the policy of protection merely removed certain non-economic obstacles and gave industry an opportunity of freely developing its economic possibilities. All that can be said is that there were some cases in which the economic conditions for the creation of industry had to be brought into existence by shutting out foreign competition by artificial means. Even a branch of industry created in this way cannot in all circumstances be said to be devoid of economic value. It is a well-known fact that even branches of production the existence of which has been made possible by artificial economic measures may sometimes constitute a gain for the economic system as a whole. Such cases are, of course, very rare—a fact that is usually forgotten by the general run of politicians. It will now be necessary to enquire whether such cases were of frequent occurrence in Hungary.

Before considering that question, brief reference must be made to one special period of protectionism in Central and South-eastern Europe which was particularly important for the later course of events. The acutely adverse situation of the balance of payments in some countries after 1931 deprived them almost entirely of their supply of foreign exchange and of gold. To a great extent this made it simply impossible for them to obtain the supplies of foreign goods which they required until they could develop their exports of agricultural produce. During that period, which lasted from 1931 until 1935, the question whether it was more economical to import certain commodities or to manufacture them at home was of purely academic interest. There was no choice between a more expensive and a cheaper method of obtaining supplies but merely a choice between producing the commodity in the country or leaving

the demand unsatisfied [1]. Wherever possible the first of these alternatives was adopted. During the period of acute depression there could be no doubt of the correctness of the choice. Taking a longer view, however, it could be seen that serious dangers were involved, because the undertakings thus created could use their "acquired rights" as an effective argument for obtaining continued protection. Fortunately the number of these undertakings was not very large, for no one believed that the depression would go on eternally and there was considerable reluctance to invest money in undertakings which it was felt could work profitably only under the conditions of the depression period. The great majority of the branches of industry developed under the protection of tariffs stands so little behind those of foreign countries as regards technique and management that at first sight there is no reason to consider them as debit items in the economic account. In such cases one must carefully weigh the advantages and disadvantages. The easiest way to arrive at a judgment of their economic value is to consider each branch in turn from the point of view of whether and to what extent the economic doubts as to the artificial encouragement of industry by protective tariffs are justified in Hungary. The most important harmful effects of artificial measures to safeguard infant industries are generally the following:

(1) The protected branches of production attract labour and means of production away from other branches. The social product is not increased but is merely redistributed to the advantage of the less efficient branches of the economic system.

(2) The same result is brought about by the fact that a protectionist policy, reacting on the mechanism of the balance of payments and commercial policy, results in a fall in exports.

(3) The substitution of expensive home products for cheap consumers' goods imported from abroad means a fall in the real income of the masses of the people.

The first of these is undoubtedly the strongest argument against tariff protection. If the change from the position of comparatively great freedom to one of restriction leads to the destruction of some industries at the same time as new ones are built up it is difficult to avoid the presumption that productive branches of the economic system are being replaced by less

[1] Hungary's exports fell from 1,038,000,000 pengös in 1929 to 334,000,000 in 1932, and the gold reserves of the National Bank fell to less than half of their former figure, being only 90,000,000 pengös.

productive ones. It is only if it can be shown that the new protected industries actually use means of production that were really lying idle that there can be said to be a chance that the economic result on balance may be positive. In practice such a case seldom occurs. One cannot talk of an idle supply of labour in the economic sense unless wages have been kept at the minimum fixed by social considerations and unemployment nevertheless persists.

An endeavour has been made in the preceding pages to show that this conjunction of circumstances, which is entirely unknown in the wealthier countries of the Western Hemisphere and rarely seen in Europe, did actually exist in Hungary and possibly also in a few other agricultural countries.

As a further indication of the fact that industrialisation was not calculated to place a heavy burden on the traditional industries of the country it may be mentioned that the proportion of labour costs to total costs in agriculture did not rise at all during the period of rapid industrial expansion and perhaps even fell. The summer rates of wages for male labourers —that is, the remuneration of that category of agricultural workers most exposed to fluctuations and therefore also to external influences—fell by almost 60 per cent. from 1929 to 1936 according to official statistics, while the wholesale price index for agricultural produce fell by less than 30 per cent. during the same period. At that time, however, as was mentioned above, there was no increase in the number of industrial workers, although there was an appreciable increase in the volume of production. This stage of industrialisation, which was made possible by the rapid increase in individual output per head, was naturally limited in time and has now probably come to an end. If industry continues to grow in the future, the resulting demand for workers, as compared with the huge reserves of available labour which are constantly renewed by the increase in population, should be sufficiently slight to be met without imposing any undue burden on agriculture.[1]

[1] Although the protection of certain industries did not make it more difficult for the older branches to obtain the supply of labour they required it may be suggested that capital was diverted from other possible investments and that land may have been used for new and less productive purposes than formerly. With regard to the first of these suggestions it may be noted that before the depression agriculture had an abundance—perhaps too great an abundance—of credit. This was not the case after the depression. But the volume of capital invested in industry since that time is comparatively small ; the Hungarian Institute for Market Research estimates the capital invested in industrial equipment from 1933 to 1936 at 180

It is more difficult to measure the extent of the second unfavourable influence of protection mentioned above, namely the substitution of protected home products for imported articles and the falling off in exports as a result of the shrinkage of imports. The volume of Hungarian exports in 1937 had regained the level of 1928-1929, though at that time world trade in general had not recovered from the effects of the depression. It is of course probable that the present volume of Hungary's foreign trade would have been slightly, although not much, higher than in the period before the depression but for the commercial restrictions introduced in the interval. The comparatively favourable situation may be attributed to a number of circumstances. In the first place the policy of protection did not have its usual effect of restricting exports through a rise in the cost of living and therefore in the cost of production, because the industrial commodities formerly imported constituted a very small item in the budget of the Hungarian worker and it was possible to avoid any increase in wages. In the second place the inflation which generally results from a surplus of exports obtained by commercial policy did not take place because the favourable balance of trade was used mainly to cover outstanding financial obligations abroad. In the third place the demand of Italy and Germany for agricultural produce was a new and favourable phenomenon of decisive importance, which increased the export opportunities of Hungary, as of all the countries in South-eastern Europe. It is true that in connection with this branch of the export trade it was necessary for Hungary, in accordance with bilateral trade agreements, to import comparatively dear or not very necessary German and Italian commodities and that this reduced the real exchange value of Hungarian exports. This fact and the circumstance that the present level of exports was rendered possible by energetic financial support from the State, which imposed a burden on consumers, deprive the favourable foreign trade figures of a fraction of their economic weight. Nevertheless these figures suffice to show that the unfavourable effects of the

million pengös. Moreover, in view of the absolute shortage of capital after 1931, the great majority of industrial undertakings had been financed out of profits, and therefore the capital used for industrialisation would not have existed but for the process of industrialisation itself. As for the question of the land, it is true that the expansion of industry artificially stimulated the development of certain crops used as industrial raw materials (flax, wool, and oil seeds) but the extent of the diversion of land to this purpose was extremely slight.

protectionist policy, although they undoubtedly existed, did only a limited amount of harm to Hungarian exports.

The third possible group of unfavourable consequences of industrialisation under tariff protection, and the one that most seriously affects the workers—namely, an increase in the price of consumption goods—can be measured only on the basis of figures, and the figures are not available. It is practically always impossible to make a direct comparison of prices in the case of industrial commodities, and such a comparison is, from the economic point of view, less interesting than a study of the changes in the ratio of internal to external prices since industrialisation took place. Even this question is difficult to examine statistically, because there are only a few countries in which a price index of industrial commodities is compiled, and the data concerning the cost of living are not as a rule strictly comparable. All that has been attempted, therefore, is to compare the evolution of prices since 1929 in the few European countries which compile a price index of industrial commodities. The percentage fall in that index from 1929 (annual average) to the end of 1937 was as follows :

Hungary	7	Czecho-Slovakia	18
Germany	20	Sweden	4
France	4		

Such a table does not convey much information, but it may perhaps serve to confirm the impression that, while the trend of prices in Hungary was less favourable to the consumer than in many other countries, the unduly high level of prices was not altogether out of line with the trend of development abroad.

Conclusions

After what has been said, there can be little doubt that the economic advantages of industrial development in the circumstances that existed in Hungary after the war outweighed its disadvantages. In such a country, with a gifted and adaptable urban middle class and an abundant supply of cheap and efficient labour, the expansion of industry was a natural development, which would have taken place even without the recent measures to restrict foreign trade. The details of the growth of industry would have been different ; the development would probably have been more specialised, and perhaps slower. In

any case, an increase in the industrial proletariat was in the nature of things, and the industrial workers of Hungary have certainly gained considerable advantages under the artificial conditions of recent years.

It was frequently noted in the course of the preceding survey that the effects of industrial development on the workers were less marked than might have been expected, and to some extent it was possible to explain this phenomenon. That the level of real wages should be the same as before the war, and that the number of industrial workers should have increased by about a third since 1913, is a very modest result when it is remembered that the volume of industrial production increased during the same period by at least two-thirds. In a country with a population of nine million, it makes little difference to the social structure whether the number of workers in factories is 220,000 or 300,000. As regards the position of the great majority of the proletariat, which is still agricultural, it has been pointed out that this class was not affected at all by industrial development and that its economic situation is just as unsatisfactory as before the war, or even less satisfactory. The main reason for the meagre results of industrial development so far as the workers are concerned can be found in the fact that the process of transforming an agricultural State into a country with a considerable volume of industry must necessarily be a very slow one, and even the most successful protectionist measures for industry and the efforts of the most enterprising industrialists cannot do much to accelerate it. There was, moreover, the decisive circumstance that industrial development in Hungary, as in most of the Eastern European countries, coincided with a long period of extreme poverty, which was accentuated for Hungary by the provisions of the Peace Treaties, and at a later stage by the general agricultural depression. This process was accompanied by the establishment of the economic system on a healthier and more regular basis, by the closing of a period when foreign credit could be obtained only too easily, and by drastic rationalisation in Hungarian industry. All these factors tended in various ways to reduce the share which the workers could hope to obtain in the benefits of industrial development. These two unsettled decades were so affected by political and social fluctuations that industrialists had to include an unusually high risk premium in their calculations, and perhaps also an unusually high rate of profit, because

the financial situation was so difficult that profits were the only source from which capital could be accumulated and the volume of employment thereby increased. The difficulties of agriculture placed on industry a higher burden of taxation, partly in the form of special taxes for the direct relief of agriculture. Finally, the political influence of the workers declined steadily during the whole period of industrial development.

A few of the factors which limited the influence of industrial expansion on the wages and employment of industrial workers in these two decades have now ceased to operate. It was pointed out above that the period of rapid rationalisation has come to an end, and the reservoir of industrial labour from branches of industry that were destroyed by the Peace Treaty is exhausted. The growth in the number of workers and in the volume of industrial production will therefore in future follow more parallel courses, and industrial expansion will have a more marked effect on the demand side of the employment market. On the other hand, it may be expected that the rate of industrial expansion will be slower. The period in which new Hungarian products replaced foreign imported commodities is over, and the subsequent course of development will be more difficult.

An attempt has been made to distinguish the special and incidental causes which prevented industrial development from having any very marked influence on the position of the proletariat in Hungary from the general causes which were to some extent common to the whole of Eastern Europe. It must be remembered, however, that these latter causes also had a decisive influence on conditions in Hungary. Thus the example of Hungary proves that even the most rapid industrial development undertaken within a system of the strictest autarky can only go a very short distance towards solving the problems of the great masses of the people in Central and Eastern Europe, and can take effect only very slowly. It is certainly a reasonable and necessary process, but at the same time international economic co-operation, which is the necessary condition for the maintenance and development of agricultural production, is at least of equal importance for the economic progress of the workers.

REPORTS AND ENQUIRIES

A Resolution of the Committee on Recreation: Facilities for Workers' Holidays during their Holidays with Pay

One of the questions on the agenda of the first session of the Committee on Recreation (set up in 1937 by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office), held in London on 21 and 22 October 1938, was that of "facilities for workers' holidays during their holidays with pay". The Office had previously drawn up a documentary report on the subject, and the Committee's discussion ended in the adoption of a unanimous resolution. The report of the Committee was submitted to the Governing Body at its 86th Session, in February 1939, and it was then decided that the Office should publish in the series of "Studies and Reports" a volume containing the documentary report prepared for the Committee, the resolution adopted, and a summary of the debate on the subject which took place in the Governing Body. As some time must elapse before this material is ready for publication, however, the text of the resolution adopted by the Committee is given below.

The Committee on Recreation, at its first session, held in London on 21 and 22 October 1938, requests the Governing Body to authorise the Director of the International Labour Office to arrange without delay for wide publicity to be given to the report now before the Committee and to the following considerations and suggestions concerning the need for combined action to facilitate the use of paid holidays, the principles which should govern such action, and possible solutions for the more important problems connected with the wise use of holidays with pay.

Need for Combined Action

Holidays with pay, whether prescribed by legislation, specified by collective agreement, awarded by arbitration, or based on custom, are spreading rapidly in many countries and the number of groups affected is steadily increasing.

The development of holidays with pay raises the problem of the use of their holidays by large numbers of workers with low incomes.

Existing holiday facilities were introduced chiefly to meet the needs of those sections of the population whose means are more substantial. The question must therefore be considered whether such facilities are now sufficient and whether they satisfy the special needs of the new type of user.

In order to meet these new needs, experiments and innovations have been made in many countries, and national experience in this field should therefore be compared.

There can be no doubt that combined action is required on behalf of the large groups which have newly become entitled to holidays with pay. To work out the general principles which should govern this combined action and to indicate the methods it should adopt for the solution of the problems connected with a wise use of such holidays is therefore an important task.

Guiding Principles for Combined Action

The object of combined action in this field should be : (1) to adapt existing facilities for travel and holidays to the special needs created by the extension of paid holidays ; (2) to make available to workers entitled to paid holidays, and their families, the information, the advice, and the organisations and services, which they may need to put these holidays to the best possible use.

Such combined action should respect individual liberty and leave each person free to use his holiday in conformity with his own preferences, tastes, and aspirations, and according to his own particular position.

Problems Connected with the Wise Use of Holidays

Co-ordination of Facilities

Steps have been taken by public authorities, or incorporated associations and institutions, workers' organisations, employers' organisations and individual employers, private tourist and sports associations, etc., with a view to establishing and developing services, institutions, and organisations of various sorts, designed to facilitate the use of holidays with pay by the workers who receive them.

These measures, many of which are intended to meet the needs of limited groups, by no means always take account of experience obtained from similar action. This lack of co-ordination has led to much useless duplication and sometimes even to partial or complete failure.

It is advisable to provide for co-ordination between the various bodies established to help the workers to make the best use of their paid holidays.

Such co-ordination might be effected, for instance, by the establishment of special bodies ; for instance, committees including representatives of the authorities, of workers' and employers' organisations, private associations, transport undertakings, the hotel industry, etc.

Such bodies should have, so far as possible, permanent secretariats.

Supply of Information on Holiday Facilities

The beneficiaries of holidays with pay should be supplied with information that is adapted to their needs and means, so as to enable them to make the best use of their holidays.

Such information may be supplied by organisations of various kinds:

(*a*) General holiday organisations, associations not working for profit, workers' education associations, workers' sport associations, workers' tourist travel agencies, and personnel administration departments in large undertakings, which should extend the scope of their activities to cover the large masses of workers now receiving holidays with pay. It is desirable that public authorities should encourage such action by subsidies or otherwise.

(*b*) Commercial tourist services (tourist travel agencies, transport undertakings, etc.) which cater more especially for comparatively well-to-do customers; such services should make a special effort to adapt themselves to the particular needs and limited resources of their new customers receiving holidays with pay. In some countries such bodies are already subject to some form of supervision by public authorities.

It is desirable that national co-ordinating bodies should compile objective tourist travel information and keep it at the disposal of the bodies mentioned above.

All these information bodies should adopt methods of publicity calculated:

(*a*) To make their information offices accessible to workers by fixing suitable hours of business and locating the offices with this end in view;

(*b*) To secure publicity in the trade union press (trade union bulletins, etc.);

(*c*) To utilise the facilities for publicity afforded in the place of work, for example works magazines and factory notice boards;

(*d*) To ensure that tourist pamphlets should be easily understood by customers with an elementary education;

(*e*) To ensure that the beneficiaries of holidays with pay shall be directly approached by means of lectures, cinema displays, broadcast talks, people's travel exhibitions, etc., organised in industrial centres.

Choice of Place for the Holiday

Value of Advice.

Even if the workers have the information necessary to make a free choice among the different ways of passing their holiday, lack of experience may lead them to leave certain circumstances out of account.

It is desirable that advice should be supplied by persons approved by the associations or institutions which arrange for holidays, so that the workers may profit to the greatest possible extent by their period of rest.

Workers planning holidays might be encouraged to choose resorts which are less frequented.

Advantages of a Change.

Workers often hesitate, sometimes for reasons of economy, to leave their homes for several days. The advice referred to above should take account of this tendency.

It is desirable that workers inhabiting big towns should be urged not to spend their holidays at home but to choose a place in the country or to travel or go on short trips, even if only day-trips.

It is desirable to increase, in the neighbourhood of towns and industrial centres, the number of sports grounds and recreation centres where workers who cannot travel during their holidays may have available healthy amusement.

Medical Information.

The growth of the practice of taking holidays among all classes of the population has emphasised the fact that those who desire to leave their homes for a holiday after a year's work may not realise the fatigue involved by too long a journey, or by living in climatic conditions the effects of which are unfamiliar to them. In order that those concerned may be able to make a choice on the basis of full information, it may be advisable to draw attention to this point when giving information on the use of holidays.

Organisation of Travel

Use of Public Transport Facilities.

There is an increasing tendency among workers to use their paid holidays for travel inside the country or abroad, and they look for economical means of making such trips.

As the holiday organisations have not as a rule their own means of transport, they have to arrange for their members to use the public transport undertakings. Workers on paid holidays thus form a new and additional type of customer for these undertakings.

Transport undertakings should be recommended to develop the practice of granting special low rates for individual and group and family travel to workers on holiday so that they may be encouraged to use the services of the undertakings.

Group travel enables the transport undertakings to use their rolling-stock fully and to prevent overcrowding, at peak periods, and thus places them in a position to grant reductions. Collaboration with organisations and travel agencies should be provided for with a view to arranging these group trips.

Transport undertakings should be recommended to grant special advantages to organisations acting as intermediaries between the transport undertakings and workers on paid holiday and so help to extend group travel.

Foreign Travel.

Trips abroad are particularly attractive but are often too expensive, particularly if specially low rates are not granted. This difficulty may be felt all the more by workers on holiday who benefit from reductions in their own country.

It is desirable for international (bilateral) agreements to be arranged by the national co-ordinating bodies, with the collaboration of the transport undertakings, so as to extend to workers on paid holiday coming from abroad the advantages accorded to workers nationals of the home country.

Arrangements should be encouraged for individual and group exchanges of workers on holiday, and also for systems of exchange trains such as exist between certain countries.

It is desirable that qualified international organisations such as already exist should continue and develop the promotion of foreign travel by musical and sport associations, etc., especially by arranging for their welcome in other countries.

Holiday Accommodation

Prices and Period of Operation.

Workers on holiday desire to live economically, either in holiday establishments catering especially for them or in hotels, etc., charging low rates. In order to obtain a large circle of guests, both the special holiday organisations and the hotels and boarding houses must attempt to reduce their costs.

A reduction in the cost of providing board in holiday establishments should be sought preferably by distributing overhead costs over a longer operating period.

It is desirable that action should be taken to extend the season during which holidays are in fact taken, account being taken of the needs of different industries and different countries, by facilitating by all appropriate means the more complete utilisation of holiday periods, in particular by spreading paid holidays or school vacations over a longer period of the year, and by increasing the advantages given to holidaymakers and tourists during the slack season.

It is desirable that special facilities should be granted to groups and family parties.

Special Accommodation for Young Persons.

Recent experience shows that young workers very much like, for reasons either of economy or of amusement, to pass their holidays in youth hostels, holiday camps, etc.

It is desirable that separate holiday establishments for young persons should be developed.

Recreation during Paid Holidays

Whether or not they leave home, workers on paid holidays should be able to use their long hours of leisure in developing their physical, intellectual and other capacities according to their tastes, through activity of their own choice. There is a particular problem in the case of urban workers who leave the town for their holiday and cannot have the recreation to which they are accustomed. Holiday organisations attempt, so far as their resources allow, to help the workers to find healthy forms of recreation.

It is desirable that measures should be taken so that holiday organisations and establishments can more easily :

(*a*) Provide workers on holiday with properly equipped indoor and outdoor recreation facilities, including sports grounds, fields for games and other arrangements for open-air sport, swimming pools and beaches, gymnasiums, etc. ;

(*b*) Make educational and recreational arrangements for amateur or professional theatricals, concerts, singing, motion pictures, libraries, lectures on the neighbourhood, or for other informal educational activities, related to the various interests of these groups and arranged at their request.

It is desirable to provide, in holiday centres, for games leaders, trainers, and recreation organisers, who might, for instance, be selected from among qualified social workers or unemployed teachers, who should receive adequate training for the purpose.

Health and Sanitation

Preliminary Medical Examination.

In some countries it has been considered advisable, with a view to keeping track of contagious diseases and protecting holiday establishments against them, that persons desiring to go to such establishments should have a preliminary medical examination.

It is desirable to draw attention to the benefits which may accrue to the population as a whole, and particularly the children, from medical examination, provided if possible free of charge, before admission to holiday establishments.

Current Medical Attention.

Persons on paid holiday away from home may find themselves in a position, as regards medical attention, less favourable than that to which they are accustomed (dispensaries, medical insurance benefit, family doctor, etc.).

Doctors established at holiday centres should be available for the workers in question, including isolated individuals and tourists as well as those in holiday homes.

Food and Lodging.

Holidays provide, as a rule, the advantages of life in the fresh air, but there may be cases in which elementary health precautions are more difficult to observe than in the towns—for instance, owing to the lack of sanitation in rural areas or on certain steamships used for cruises. It is desirable that the attention of those concerned should be drawn to this matter.

The importance should be kept in view of the action exercised by health services, particularly during holiday periods, in the supervision for health purposes of foodstuffs intended for consumption by individuals and groups, and of the conditions relating to individual and group accommodation (water supply, washing arrangements, evacuation of sewage and rubbish, sleeping accommodation, etc.).

Hours of Work in Japan

The Statutory Provisions

Factories

The basic law regulating hours of work in Japan is the Factory Act of 1911, as amended in 1923. This Act applies to all factories employing ten or more persons, or engaged in processes dangerous or injurious to health, or operated with motive power and engaged in weaving or doubling, irrespective of the number of workers employed.

So far as hours of work, rest periods, rest days, and night work, are concerned, the provisions of this Act apply only to young persons under sixteen years of age and women.

Hours of work are limited to 11 per day including rest periods. These periods must amount to at least 30 minutes if normal hours exceed 6 per day, and one hour if normal hours exceed 10 per day. The minimum number of rest days is two per month, and four if the work is divided into more than two shifts. Night work is prohibited between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m., with an extension of one hour up to 11 p.m. by permission.

The law recognises exceptions to the foregoing regulations (apart from the provisions relating to rest periods during the day, which are compulsory in all circumstances), in the following cases: (1) *force majeure*; (2) exceptional emergencies resulting from unavoidable circumstances; and (3) other emergencies. Provisions relating to *force majeure* are applicable by order of the competent Minister to specified industries in specified areas. Those relating to exceptional emergencies resulting from unavoidable circumstances may be applied to individual employers by permission of the appropriate administrative authority during a specified period. Permission, however, is not needed in the case of work intended to prevent materials from rapidly deteriorating, provided that such work does not extend beyond four days in succession or seven days per month. In the case of other emergencies, work may be prolonged by two hours a day for not more than seven days a month on reporting to the administrative authority on each occasion. In the case of seasonal industries involving special pressure of work, the occupier of a factory may, by permission, extend the hours of work by a maximum of one hour for a specified period not exceeding 120 days a year. Provisions relating to emergencies do not apply during this period.

The above regulations apply only to private establishments. The conditions of work in State undertakings are regulated by the Government departments concerned, and the standard of protection for the workers is generally higher than in private establishments. For example, the principle of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week was

applied in the State tobacco factories in 1933.[1] In the Kure Naval Arsenal, overtime and Sunday work were abolished from May 1936.[2] The Regulations for Workers in Military Undertakings, issued on 2 June 1937, fixed the hours of work at 10 per day including one hour of rest for all adult workers, and 9 per day including rest periods for workers under 16 years of age. Full payment is granted for national and military holidays, and half payment from 29 December to 3 January inclusive as annual holidays.

Mines

In mines, the hours of work, rest periods, rest days, and night work, are regulated on the same basis as in factories, with the following exceptions :

(1) Hours of work in underground mines are limited to 10 per day including one hour of rest for all miners irrespective of age or sex. Hours of work are calculated from the time of entering until the time of leaving the pit.[3]

(2) Employment of young persons under 16 years of age or of women in underground mines is prohibited as a general rule.

(3) Subject to permission, any miner may be employed at night for a specified period in coal-sorting at the surface in one of three or more shifts working in rotation.

(4) In case of *force majeure*, a mineowner may be exempted from the hours regulations on reporting to the Mines Inspection Bureau. In the case of exceptional emergencies resulting from unavoidable circumstances, a mineowner may likewise, subject to permission, be exempted from the hours regulations for a specified period.

Shops

Under the Shops Act of 1938[4], which applies to wholesale and retail shops for the sale of merchandise, and to hairdressing saloons, shops must be closed at 10 p.m. as a general rule and at 11 p.m. in specified localities. At least one rest day per month must be given to all workers.

In shops employing more than 50 persons, young persons under 16 years of age and women must not be employed for more than 11 hours per day including rest periods. Rest periods must amount to at least 30 minutes if normal hours exceed 6 per day and at least one hour if normal hours exceed 10 per day, and workers are entitled to at least 2 rest days per month. Thus, large shops are placed on the same footing as factories and mines, so far as hours of work, rest periods, and rest days, are concerned.

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[1] Cf. *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. XLV, No. 11, 13 March 1933, p. 319.

[2] *Ibid.*, Vol. LVIII, No. 11, 15 June 1936, p. 337.

[3] If miners work in a group, the hours between the time when the last miner of the group enters the pit and the time when the last miner of the group leaves the pit may, by permission, be considered to be the hours of work of each miner belonging to the group.

[4] *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. LXVII, No. 2, 11 July 1938, p. 37.

In all shops, during busy seasons, hours of work may be extended for a period not exceeding 60 days per year, and rest days may, subject to permission, be reduced to one per month. In emergencies, hours of work may be extended and rest days reduced, with the approval of the administrative authority.

According to the Department Stores Act of 1937, shops engaged in the sale of various kinds of merchandise and occupying a specified floor space must be closed at 7 p.m. from 1 April to 31 October, and at 6 p.m. from 1 November to 31 March. In busy seasons or in emergencies, the closing hour may be postponed to 9 p.m., by permission of the Minister concerned. The advisory commission dealing with department stores in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry recommended on 14 October 1937 that the number of days on which overtime may be worked for seasonal purposes should not exceed 50 per year. The minimum number of rest days per month in department stores is 3 in six large cities [1], and one in other cities.

Transport

No statutory regulation of the hours of transport workers exists in Japan. Those employed by State railways and communications are protected by the internal regulations of the respective departments. The hours of work of the State railway workers, who numbered about 200,000 out of 250,000 railway workers in the country at the end of 1935, and concerning whom information is available, are regulated as follows :

Engine Staff.

Regulations of September 1935 fixed the maximum daily period of employment for engine staff at 16 hours during the day and 14 hours at night [2], including the time required for preparatory and complementary work. Time spent in waiting for trains and in travelling between trains and offices is also included in working hours. The maximum duration of one continuous spell of work on a train is 8 hours, and the average hours of work per day are limited to 8, which may be increased or decreased by not more than one hour according to the nature of the work. A rest period at least equal to the preceding period of service is given on the termination of work. Two rest days are granted per month.

Train Staff.

The maximum daily period of employment for train staff is 18 hours during the day and 15 at night. The average hours of work are fixed at 9½, subject to prolongation or reduction within the limit of half an hour. Train staff is entitled to a rest period at least equal to the preceding period of service, and to two rest days per month.

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[1] Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, Nagoya, Yokohama, and Kobe.

[2] Night service comprises all periods which include more than 3 hours between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

Station Staff.

The hours of work for station staff are limited to 10 per day, for both day and night service, which may be increased or decreased within the limit of one hour according to the season. Station staff is entitled to 4 holidays per month. Special arrangements regarding hours of work exist for certain services.

Track Maintenance Staff.

The hours of work for linemen are fixed at 10 per day, and are prolonged by one hour in the summer months and shortened by one hour in the winter months. Hours of work in tunnels are limited to 8 per day. Linemen are entitled to 3 holidays per month.

Track maintenance staff is paid 10 per cent. above the normal rate for overtime work exceeding one hour in a tunnel or two hours on open tracks. A special allowance is granted for work performed before 5 a.m. or after 8 p.m.

Economic Conditions and the Employment Market

It is obvious that hours of work may be affected by the fluctuations of the business cycle. In Japan, as elsewhere, 1929 was a fairly prosperous year. In January 1930, however, the Government restored the gold standard, and adopted a severely deflationary policy in order to reduce commodity prices to the international level. This brought about a serious business depression during 1930 and 1931. As is indicated in table I below, the index number of industrial employment fell from 100 in 1929 to 81.7 in 1931, the unemployment index rose from 100 in 1930 to 114.4 in 1931, and the index number of industrial production fell from 92.5 to 90.2 between 1930 and 1931.

TABLE I. HOURS OF WORK AND INDEX NUMBERS OF INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITY, 1929 TO 1937

Year	Actual daily working hours [1] (hours and minutes)	Number of working days per month [1]	Employment index [2]	Unemployment index [3]	Production index [4]
1929	9.16	26.9	100.0	—	—
1930	9.08	26.5	90.0	100.0	92.5
1931	9.05	26.4	81.7	114.4	90.2
1932	9.06	26.5	82.0	131.5	97.3
1933	9.13	26.9	89.9	110.6	113.3
1934	9.15	26.9	100.2	101.0	129.1
1935	9.17	26.9	109.7	96.4	143.3
1936	9.17	27.0	115.8	91.6	152.6
1937	9.20	27.1	128.8	80.0	172.4

[1] From the Imperial Cabinet's Monthly Wage Statistics.
[2] Bank of Japan (1929 = 100).
[3] Ministry of Welfare (1930 = 100). Unemployment among salaried employees and casual workers is included.
[4] Ministry of Commerce and Industry (average for 1931, 1932, and 1933 = 100).

In December 1931, however, the gold standard was again abandoned, and this resulted in rapid depreciation of the yen, followed by an increase in foreign trade. At the same time, the Government adopted a rearmament programme which stimulated the munition industries. These factors were responsible for a steady improvement in the economic situation after 1932. During the period between 1932 and 1937, the employment index rose from 82.0 to 128.8, the unemployment index fell from 131.5 to 80.0, and the production index rose from 97.3 to 172.4.

Hours of work were affected by these economic changes. Actual daily hours of work per day as reported by the Imperial Cabinet fell from 9 hours and 16 minutes in 1929 to 9 hours and 5 minutes in 1931, and working days per month from 26.9 to 26.4. This trend, however, was reversed after 1932 : daily hours of work increased from 9 hours and 6 minutes in 1932 to 9 hours and 20 minutes in 1937, and monthly working days from 26.5 to 27.1.

In this connection, the progress of social legislation, which also played an important part in reducing actual hours of work during the period from 1929 to 1931, must not be overlooked. In 1929, night work of young persons and women was effectively abolished, reducing hours of operation in the cotton spinning factories from 20 to 17 per day (worked in two shifts). In the same year, the scope of the Factory Act was extended to include those establishments employing fewer than 10 persons which are engaged in weaving or doubling and use motive power. An additional hour's work which had been permitted in the silk reeling industry was abolished in July 1930, fourteen months earlier than the date prescribed by law.

The Hours Actually Worked

Industry

Number of Workers Covered by Factory Legislation.

The Factory Inspection Report for 1936 shows that the total number of factories coming under the Factory Act on 1 October 1936 was 103,663, of which 45,060 employed 10 or more persons, 40,589 employed fewer than 10 persons but were engaged in processes dangerous or injurious to health, and 18,014 employed fewer than 10 persons but were engaged in weaving or doubling and used motive power. The total number of factories employing 5 or more persons, reported in the Factory Statistics published by the Department of Commerce and Industry, was 90,602 at the end of 1936.

According to the Factory Statistics, the total number of workers employed at the end of 1936 was 2,592,687, consisting of 1,134,289 females and 1,458,398 males (including 49,658 under the age of 16). The total number of workers covered by the Factory Act on 1 October 1936 was 2,562,472, or 30,215 fewer than the number included in the Factory Statistics. These workers may be classified as follows :

TABLE II. NUMBER OF WORKERS COVERED BY THE FACTORY ACT IN 1936 [1]

Men			
Factories	Under 16	Over 16	Total
Employing 10 or more persons	64,805	1,201,338	1,266,143
Dangerous or injurious	5,790	119,239	125,029
Weaving or doubling	2,118	13,397	15,515
Total	72,713	1,333,974	1,406,687

Women				Total (men and women)
Factories	Under 16	Over 16	Total	
Employing 10 or more persons	250,547	830,360	1,080,907	2,347,050
Dangerous or injurious	762	9,187	9,949	134,978
Weaving or doubling	13,195	51,734	64,929	80,444
Total	264,504	891,281	1,155,785	2,562,472

[1] From the Factory Inspection Report for 1936.

As shown in table II, the number of young persons under 16 years of age and women to whom the hours provisions of the Factory Act applied in 1936 was 1,228,498 (72,713 boys under 16 years of age and 1,155,785 women), or 45.1 per cent. of the total number of workers covered by the Factory Act and 44.6 per cent. of the total number of workers reported in the Factory Statistics. The total number of young persons and women shown as coming under the Factory Act exceeded the corresponding figure contained in the Factory Statistics by 44,551.

Actual Hours of Work.

The most accurate information on hours of work is furnished by the Census of Labour, which is taken every three years, covering about 70 per cent. of the total number of workers in factories employing

5 or more persons. The latest Census was taken in October 1936, but the figures for actual hours of work are not yet available.

There are two sources of information on hours of work which are published monthly. One is the Monthly Wage Statistics published by the Imperial Cabinet, and the other the Statistics of Factory and Mining Labour issued by the Bank of Japan. In December 1935 the Monthly Wage Statistics, limited to factories employing 30 or more workers, included only 997 factories employing altogether 528,933 persons (365,994 men and 162,939 women), or 530 persons per factory on the average. The Statistics of Factory and Mining Labour covered on the same date 4,375 factories employing 1,129,269 workers (582,566 men and 546,703 women), or 258 persons per factory. Large establishments work shorter hours than small ones. In December 1935, the actual hours of work reported by the Imperial Cabinet were 9 hours and 16 minutes per day, and the number of working days per month was 27.3, while the figures given by the Bank of Japan were 9 hours and 56 minutes per day and 27.5 days per month. It may be noted that the actual daily hours of work published by the Bank of Japan in 1933 agreed fairly well with those reported in the Census of Labour of the same year. Figures published by the Bank of Japan, however, are available only from December 1932. Table III gives statistics reported by the Imperial Cabinet and table IV figures published by the Bank of Japan, the former to show hours of work in large establishments since 1929, and the latter to give more comprehensive figures for the period since 1933.

Table III gives figures for 1929, a fairly prosperous year, and for 1931, the most depressed year, as well as for 1937 and 1938, the latest years, in which hours of work were considerably prolonged. According to this table, the actual hours of work including overtime in 1937 ranged from 8 hours and 53 minutes per day and 26.2 days per month

TABLE III. ACTUAL DAILY HOURS OF WORK AND MONTHLY WORKING DAYS IN INDUSTRY IN 1929, 1931, 1937, AND 1938 [1]

Year	Ceramics		Metallurgy		Engineering and tools		Shipbuilding and vehicles		Precision instruments	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1929	8.55	27.4	8.59	26.6	8.58	26.0	—	—	—	—
1931	8.36	26.8	8.48	25.9	8.58	25.5	8.39	25.0	8.27	24.8
1937	8.57	27.4	9.04	26.8	9.32	27.0	8.53	26.2	9.05	26.1
1938 :										
March	8.52	27.1	9.09	26.7	9.41	27.1	8.53	26.5	8.56	26.2
June	8.56	27.7	9.02	27.3	9.41	27.7	8.53	26.9	9.06	26.6

[1] From the Imperial Cabinet's Monthly Wage Statistics. H = hours and minutes; D. = days.

(Table continued on following page.)

TABLE III. ACTUAL DAILY HOURS OF WORK AND MONTHLY WORKING DAYS IN INDUSTRY IN 1929, 1931, 1937, AND 1938[1] (*cont.*)

Year	Chemicals		Textiles		Clothing and accessories		Paper and printing		Leather and bones	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1929	9.08	26.6	9.50	27.1	9.11	26.2	—	—	8.45	26.6
1931	8.58	26.4	9.28	26.6	9.04	25.9	9.26	26.6	8.43	25.8
1937	9.09	27.1	9.40	27.2	9.26	26.9	9.31	27.2	9.16	26.7
1938 :										
March	9.13	26.9	9.41	26.8	9.24	27.7	9.34	26.8	9.12	26.7
June	9.12	27.8	9.39	27.3	9.08	27.6	9.33	27.8	9.02	25.5

Year	Wood and bamboo		Food and drinks		Gas and electricity		Others		All industries (average)	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1929	9.13	27.0	8.58	27.6	8.37	29.2	—	—	9.16	26.9
1931	9.08	26.4	8.57	27.3	8.47	29.6	8.47	25.7	9.05	26.4
1937	9.07	26.9	9.03	27.4	9.00	29.7	8.59	26.5	9.20	27.1
1938 :										
March	9.12	27.1	9.07	27.7	8.57	28.2	9.27	26.5	9.22	27.0
June	9.19	27.0	9.08	28.1	9.05	29.9	9.25	27.8	9.21	27.5

[1] See note on foregoing page.

in the shipbuilding and vehicle industry to 9 hours and 40 minutes per day and 27.2 days per month in the textile industry, the average figures for all industries being 9 hours and 20 minutes per day and 27.1 days per month. If the figures for 1937 are compared with those for 1929, it will be seen that there was an increase in all industries except the textile and the wood and bamboo industries, in which working hours were reduced. The largest increase (34 minutes) is found in the engineering and tools industry, followed by the leather and bone industry (31 minutes) and the gas and electricity industry (23 minutes). The increase was negligible in all other industries. The average daily working hours for all industries in 1937 were 9 hours and 20 minutes, showing an increase of 4 minutes over 1929 and 15 minutes over 1931, and the average number of monthly working days was 27.1, an increase of 0.2 over 1929 and 0.7 over 1931. The average figures for March and June 1938 show a further increase.

The average daily rest period in 1937 ranged from 47 minutes in the engineering and tools industry to 1 hour and 19 minutes in the food and drink industry, the average for all industries being 57 minutes.

More interesting figures are to be found in the statistics published by the Bank of Japan (table IV). From the standpoint of working

TABLE IV. ACTUAL DAILY HOURS OF WORK AND MONTHLY WORKING DAYS IN INDUSTRY IN JUNE, 1933, 1937, AND 1938 [1]

Year (June)	Metal working		Engineering		Tools and instruments		Ship-building		Vehicles	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1933	9.58	27.0	10.23	27.5	9.31	27.0	10.00	27.1	9.26	27.9
1937	10.18	27.4	10.38	27.8	9.40	27.5	10.48	27.4	9.33	28.7
1938	10.24	27.5	10.48	27.9	9.52	27.7	10.38	27.6	9.48	28.1
Increase 1933-1938	0.26	0.5	0.25	0.4	0.21	0.7	0.38	0.5	0.22	0.2

Year (June)	Ceramics, glass, and building materials		Lumbering and wood working		Paper		Paper products		Printing and bookbinding	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1933	9.28	27.5	9.33	26.9	10.38	27.0	9.43	26.6	9.36	26.8
1937	9.36	28.0	9.41	27.6	10.36	28.1	9.49	27.4	9.54	27.2
1938	9.38	27.8	9.53	27.6	10.40	28.2	10.00	27.8	9.52	27.3
Increase 1933-1938	0.10	0.3	0.20	0.7	0.02	1.2	0.17	1.2	0.16	0.5

Year (June)	Silk reeling		Cotton spinning		Weaving		Dyeing and finishing		Knitting	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1933	10.01	21.8	8.52	26.5	9.54	27.8	10.29	27.1	9.51	27.7
1937	10.00	25.6	8.55	26.8	9.56	27.9	10.21	27.5	9.46	28.2
1938	10.01	26.5	8.57	26.6	9.56	27.8	10.15	26.9	9.51	27.9
Increase 1933-1938	—	4.7	0.05	0.1	0.02	—	0.14	0.2	—	0.2

Year (June)	Rayon		Clothing		Leather goods		Rubber goods		Medical products	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1933	—	—	9.24	27.2	9.03	26.9	9.32	25.4	9.22	27.9
1937	9.23	27.9	9.28	27.6	9.29	26.7	9.46	25.8	9.23	28.0
1938	9.20	27.9	9.50	27.9	10.17	27.0	9.39	25.0	9.47	28.1
Increase 1933-1938	—	—	0.26	0.7	1.14	0.1	0.07	0.4	0.25	0.2

Year (June)	Dyes and paints		Artificial manure		Food and drink		All industries (average)	
	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.
1933	9.27	26.8	10.23	28.9	9.27	27.8	9.46	26.8
1937	9.41	27.5	10.33	29.1	9.38	28.1	9.54	27.5
1938	9.52	27.7	10.45	28.9	9.43	28.3	9.59	27.5
Increase 1933-1938	0.25	0.9	0.22	—	0.16	0.5	0.13	0.7

[1] Figures published by the Bank of Japan.
H. = hours and minutes ; D. = days.

hours, industry may be divided into three groups—textiles, munitions, and miscellaneous. In the textiles group the majority of the workers are women, and the actual hours of work in June 1938 were less than 10 per day. The dyeing and finishing branch, in which 10 hours and a quarter were worked, was an exception due to the fact that adult male workers predominate in this section of the industry. Working days ranged from 26.5 per month in the silk industry to 27.9 in knitting factories.

In the heavy and chemical industries in which munitions are manufactured, hours of work have been prolonged generally since 1937. In June 1938 the longest hours were worked in the engineering industry (10 hours and 48 minutes), followed by the artificial manure industry (10 hours and 45 minutes), the shipbuilding industry (10 hours and 38 minutes), the metal working industry (10 hours and 24 minutes), and the leather industry (10 hours and 17 minutes). The shortest hours in this group were found in the tool and instrument industry (9 hours and 52 minutes), and the medical products industry (9 hours and 48 minutes), and the vehicles industry (9 hours and 47 minutes). The number of working days was generally between 27.5 and 28 per month.

In the miscellaneous group, daily working hours were less than 10 except in the paper industry, where 10 hours and 40 minutes was reported. The number of working days ranged between 27 and 28 per month in most cases. The average hours of work for all industries in June 1938 were 9 hours and 59 minutes per day, and the average working days 27.5 per month.

Comparing the figures for June 1938 with those for the same month of 1933, we find little change in the various branches of the textile industry, but an increase ranging from 21 to 38 minutes per day was registered in the heavy, medical products and artificial manure industries. In the leather goods industry, work was prolonged by 1 hour and 14 minutes a day. An increase varying between 20 and 26 minutes a day was also reported in the clothing, dyes and paints and lumbering industries, and a smaller rise in all other trades. The increase in average working hours for all industries was 13 minutes per day, and in working days per month 0.7.

In October 1937, the Government issued an instruction to the prefectural governors requesting them to persuade munition manufacturers to limit the daily hours of work for all workers, including adult males, to 12 including rest periods and overtime, and to 14 in emergencies, with 2 or more rest days per month. At the same time, the adoption of shift systems, with a three-shift system whenever practicable, was encouraged. It is reported that the Government is preparing to enforce this practice by law.[1] That is the first step towards limiting working hours for adult male workers in industry.

Overtime.

Overtime is recognised by the factory legislation in certain circumstances, as has already been stated. According to the Factory Inspection Report for 1936, the number of permits granted in that

[1] *Tokyo Nichi Nichi*, 22 Dec. 1938.

year for the postponement of the closing hour of factories employing young persons under 16 years of age and women from 10 p.m. to 11 p.m. was 2,032 ; the number of permits for the extension of working hours by not more than 2 hours a day for not more than 7 days a month in cases of urgent necessity was 22,856 ; and the number of permits for extension of not more than 1 hour a day for not more than 120 days a year in seasonal industries was 2,167. This makes a total of 27,055 averaging 0.261 per factory per year, as compared with 0.148 per factory in 1931, an increase of 76.4 per cent.

As regards overtime performed by all workers in various undertakings, information is available in the report of the Census of Labour of 1933. This Census covered 8,440 factories employing 1,428,382 workers (718,385 men and 709,997 women), or 11.6 per cent. of the total number of factories employing 5 or more persons and 71.1 per cent. of the total number of workers engaged in such factories. According to the Census, of 1,428,382 persons investigated, 905,071, or 63.4 per cent., worked normal hours (9 hours and 18 minutes), while 479,609, or 33.6 per cent., worked overtime, the average duration of which was 1 hour and 30 minutes. The total daily hours of those working overtime were 10 hours and 24 minutes, and the average hours for all workers were 9 hours and 42 minutes, which is approximately the same as the figure given by the Bank of Japan for the year 1933.

If the figures reported by the Census of 1933 are compared with those of 1930, it is found that the normal hours of work fell from 9 hours and 21 minutes to 9 hours and 18 minutes. On the other hand, the percentage working overtime rose from 20.8 to 33.6, the average duration of overtime from 1 hour and 5 minutes to 1 hour and 30 minutes, and the daily hours of those working overtime from 10 hours and 2 minutes to 10 hours and 24 minutes. The average hours for all workers increased from 9 hours and 28 minutes to 9 hours and 42 minutes, as is shown in table V.

TABLE V. ACTUAL DAILY HOURS OF WORK AS SHOWN BY THE CENSUS OF LABOUR, 1 OCTOBER 1933 [1]

Industry	Average hours of work for all workers	Normal hours of work	Overtime			
			Number of workers	Per cent. of all workers	Overtime hours	Total hours
Ceramic etc.	9.36	9.06	20,432	40.0	1.18	10.18
Metal working	10.00	9.00	74,639	61.4	1.48	10.42
Engineering etc.	10.12	9.06	74,480	72.1	1.54	10.36
Shipbuilding and vehicles	10.00	8.42	98,785	75.6	1.48	10.24
Precision instruments	9.36	8.54	9,453	55.0	1.42	10.18
Chemical	9.48	9.12	45,837	47.7	1.18	10.30
Textile	9.30	9.24	88,398	12.7	1.00	10.06
Clothing	9.30	9.24	4,987	16.8	1.00	10.18
Paper and printing	10.00	9.30	29,959	50.7	1.18	10.24
Leather and bone	9.18	9.00	1,335	36.6	1.18	10.00
Wood and bamboo	9.36	9.18	8,150	31.6	0.18	10.24
Food and drink	9.00	8.36	13,161	22.6	1.06	10.06
Construction	9.24	9.12	3,179	17.9	1.18	10.24
Gas and electricity	9.48	9.30	3,023	51.0	1.12	10.06
Others	9.18	8.54	3,791	36.6	1.18	10.06
All industries	9.42	9.18	479,609	33.6	1.30	10.24
All industries in 1930	9.28	9.21	270,052	20.8	1.05	10.02

[1] Published by the Imperial Cabinet (hours and minutes).

Monthly Holidays.

As table V shows, the reports of the Census of Labour manifest a considerable difference between the normal daily hours of work and the actual figures, because of the effect of overtime. So far as monthly holidays are concerned, however, the difference is presumed to be small, since the Census reports do not make any distinction between the normal monthly holidays and the actual figures. The first report of the Census of Labour of 1936 shows that during the period between 1930 and 1936 the percentage of factories investigated observing weekly holidays decreased from 22.1 to 17.0, while the factories where two holidays per month were given increased from 69.9 to 74.1 per cent. Little change, however, was noted during the same period in the percentage distribution of workers according to the number of holidays. About one-half of the workers investigated were given two holidays per month, while about 40 per cent. had weekly holidays or more. The average number of monthly holidays for all workers in 1936 was 2.9.

TABLE VI. NUMBER OF MONTHLY HOLIDAYS IN INDUSTRY IN 1930, 1933, AND 1936 [1]

Year	1 day or less	2 days	3 days	4 days or more	Uncertain	Total
Factories (number)						
1930	141	5,250	447	1,661	15	7,514
1933	218	6,259	485	1,470	8	8,440
1936	198	5,458	435	1,248	24	7,363
Factories (percentage)						
1930	1.9	69.9	5.9	22.1	0.2	100.0
1933	2.6	74.2	5.7	17.4	0.1	100.0
1936	2.7	74.1	5.9	17.0	0.3	100.0
Workers (number)						
1930	15,617	628,850	131,282	523,053	1,461	1,300,263
1933	22,212	695,267	162,037	548,278	588	1,428,382
1936	29,813	906,735	165,662	703,569	4,655	1,810,434
Workers (percentage)						
1930	1.2	48.4	10.1	40.2	0.1	100.0
1933	1.6	48.7	11.3	38.4	0.0	100.0
1936	1.6	50.1	9.2	38.9	0.2	100.0

[1] Reports of the Census of Labour, 1930, 1933, and 1936 (published by the Imperial Cabinet).

Mines

Number of Miners.

The total number of miners in June 1935, the last date for which figures are available, was 257,415. The numbers of boys under 16 years of age and women, to whom the Mines Regulations apply so far as hours of work, rest periods, rest days, and night work, are concerned, were 1,521 and 25,389 respectively. These workers constituted 10.5 per cent. of the total. The number of miners employed underground, whose hours of work are limited to 10 per day including breaks, was 169,446, or 65.8 per cent. of the total. Particulars are given in table VII.

TABLE VII. NUMBER OF MINERS IN JUNE 1935 [1]

Class of mines		Men			Women	Total
		Under 16	Over 16	Total		
Metal :	underground	31	38,047	38,078	26	38,104
	surface	602	24,303	24,905	6,407	31,312
	total	633	62,350	62,983	6,433	69,416
Coal :	underground	71	122,896	122,967	5,308	128,275
	surface	780	33,543	34,323	12,539	46,862
	total	851	156,439	157,290	17,847	175,137
Others :	underground	—	3,067	3,067	—	3,067
	surface	37	8,649	8,686	1,109	9,795
	total	37	11,716	11,753	1,109	12,862
Total :	underground	102	164,010	164,112	5,334	169,446
	surface	1,419	66,495	67,914	20,055	87,969
	total	1,521	230,505	232,026	25,389	257,415

[1] *Rodo Jiho*, Jan. 1937, p. 16.

Actual Hours of Work.

Industrial conditions naturally affect the mining industry. The index number of mineral production published by the Department of Commerce and Industry (average for 1931, 1932, and 1933 = 100) fell from 106.1 in 1930 to 96.8 in 1932, but rose to 150.6 in 1937. The employment index of miners published by the Bank of Japan (1926 = 100) also rose from 59.4 in 1933 to 80.6 in 1937 and 91.9 in July 1938.

Actual hours of work, however, steadily declined after 1927. The reduction of one hour for underground miners, enforced from 1929, was no doubt an important factor in the fall of working hours in mines after that date. According to the reports published by the Imperial Cabinet (which covered 112,232 persons at the end of 1935, or 40.8 per cent. of the miners employed in that year), the actual hours of work in coal mines decreased from 9 hours and 30 minutes per day in 1927 to 9 hours and 10 minutes in 1937, the number of working days remaining 26.0 per month. In metal mines the daily hours of work also fell, during the same period, from 8 hours and

17 minutes to 8 hours and 11 minutes, and the number of working days per month from 28.0 to 27.1. The average working day for all miners was shortened from 9 hours and 6 minutes to 8 hours and 48 minutes per day, and the number of working days per month from 26.8 to 26.6, during the period under review.

According to the reports issued by the Bank of Japan (which covered 157,454 miners in December 1935, or 57.3 per cent. of the miners employed in that year), the daily hours of work in coal mines increased from 8 hours and 56 minutes in June 1933 to 9 hours in the same month of 1937, and to 9 hours and 14 minutes a year later. It is also stated that in coal mines, in June 1938, 8 hours and 48 minutes were worked underground and 9 hours and 39 minutes on the surface. The weekly rest was generally observed. In metal mines, the daily working hours were shortened by 3 minutes between 1933 and 1938, and in June 1938 were 8 hours and 35 minutes. Working days per month fell from 28.0 to 27.6. The average hours in all mines were increased from 8 hours and 56 minutes to 9 hours during the five-year period, with working days per month constant at 27.1. Particulars are given in table VIII.

TABLE VIII. ACTUAL DAILY HOURS OF WORK AND MONTHLY WORKING DAYS IN MINES, 1927-1937

Year	Coal mines		Metal mines		All mines	
	Hours and minutes	Days	Hours and minutes	Days	Hours and minutes	Days
Imperial Cabinet's figures						
1927	9.30	26.0	8.17	28.0	9.06	26.8
1928	9.30	26.0	8.17	28.0	9.06	26.8
1929	9.25	25.8	8.14	27.9	9.03	26.6
1930	9.16	25.0	8.12	27.7	8.56	26.1
1931	9.11	24.7	8.16	27.2	8.53	25.7
1932	9.11	25.0	8.17	27.2	8.52	26.0
1933	9.13	25.7	8.15	27.2	8.53	26.4
1934	9.07	25.4	8.12	27.2	8.49	26.3
1935	9.05	25.6	8.10	27.2	8.46	26.4
1936	9.09	25.9	8.10	27.1	8.48	26.6
1937	9.10	26.0	8.11	27.1	8.48	26.6
Bank of Japan's figures						
(June)						
1933	8.56	26.3	8.38	28.0	8.56	27.0
1937	9.00	26.0	8.35	27.6	8.56	27.1
1938 :						
underground	8.48	25.9	8.07	27.7	—	—
surface	9.39	26.1	8.55	27.6	—	—
average	9.14	26.0	8.35	27.6	9.00	27.1

Transport and Communications

Hours of work in transport and communication services are given in the Monthly Wage Statistics published by the Imperial Cabinet, which in December 1935 covered 165,195 workers, classified as follows :

TABLE IX. NUMBER OF WORKERS IN TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS COVERED BY MONTHLY WAGE STATISTICS IN DECEMBER 1935

Occupation	Number of undertakings	Men	Women	Total
Transport :				
Railways	52	101,743	2,110	103,853
Tramways	36	20,643	1,212	21,855
Motor-buses	11	3,210	2,785	5,995
Shipping	292	8,728	—	8,728
Transport agents	18	1,062	19	1,081
Total	409	135,386	6,126	141,512
Communications	31	10,492	13,191	23,683
General total	440	145,878	19,317	165,195

In spite of the economic recovery since 1932, the actual hours of work in transport services continued to decline. As shown in table X, the average daily hours of work for all transport workers fell from 9 hours and 50 minutes in June 1929 to 9 hours and 42 minutes in the same month of 1931, and to 9 hours and 17 minutes in 1937. Rest days more than equivalent to the weekly rest were generally observed during this period.

During the period between June 1929 and May 1938, there was a very marked reduction in the hours of railwaymen, which fell from 11 hours and 20 minutes to 10 hours and 8 minutes. The number of rest days was more than four per month. The daily hours of tramwaymen were prolonged from 8 hours and 51 minutes to 9 hours and 5 minutes, but the number of working days per month fell from 24.5 to 23.9. A considerable increase was reported in motor-bus services; daily hours of work rose from 7 hours and 15 minutes to 8 hours and 58 minutes, but working days per month fell from 27.0 to 25.4.

In the postal, telephone and telegraph services, during the same

period, daily hours of work fell from 8 hours and 1 minute to 7 hours and 27 minutes; the weekly rest was maintained.

TABLE X. ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK IN TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS, 1929, 1931, 1937, AND 1938 [1]

Year (June)	Railways		Tramways		Motor-buses	
	Hours and minutes	Days	Hours and minutes	Days	Hours and minutes	Days
1929	11.20	24.9	8.51	24.5	7.15	27.0
1931	10.51	25.1	9.24	23.9	7.15	27.0
1937	10.13	25.7	8.53	24.1	9.00	25.6
1938 (May)	10.08	25.5	9.05	23.9	8.58	25.4

Year (June)	Average for all land and water transport		Post, telephone, and telegraph		Average for transport and communications	
	Hours and minutes	Days	Hours and minutes	Days	Hours and minutes	Days
1929	9.50	25.2	8.01	25.9	9.10	25.5
1931	9.42	25.0	7.30	26.4	8.54	25.5
1937	9.17	25.4	7.24	25.7	8.40	25.5
1938 (May)	—	—	7.27	25.7	8.44	25.5

[1] From the Imperial Cabinet's Monthly Wage Statistics.

Shops

No reliable statistics are available of actual hours of work in small retail shops in recent years. However, the law requiring shops to close generally at 10 p.m., which was brought into operation in October 1938, shows that retail shops are kept open until late hours.

In November 1936 the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Japanese Government made an investigation into hours of work in 395 shops employing 50 persons or more, covering 91,596 workers altogether. This investigation showed that, of 395 shops, 30 had adopted a two-shift system, 28 a three-shift system, and 1 a four-shift system. The hours of work in the 336 shops which were operated without shifts were as follows:

TABLE XI. HOURS OF WORK IN 336 SHOPS EMPLOYING 50 PERSONS OR MORE IN NOVEMBER 1936 [1]

Hours of work including rest	Shops		Hours of work including rest	Shops	
	Number	Per cent.		Number	Per cent.
Less than 7	3	0.9	12-13	19	5.6
7-8	40	11.9	13-14	10	3.0
8-9	95	28.3	14-15	2	0.6
9-10	87	25.9	Over 15	1	0.3
10-11	40	11.9	Uncertain	5	1.5
11-12	34	10.1	Total	336	100.0

[1] K. YOSHITAKE, in *Shakai Seisaku Jiho*, June 1937, pp. 140-143.

According to this table, 88.1 per cent. of all the shops under review worked between 7 and 12 hours per day including rest periods, and the majority between 8 and 10 hours.

Of 395 shops investigated, 119, or 30.1 per cent., observed the weekly rest; 129, or 32.7 per cent., had 2 rest days; 97, or 24.6 per cent., 3 rest days; and 44, or 11.1 per cent., 1 rest day per month.

CONCLUSIONS

Statutory regulations governing hours of work in Japan cover only young persons under 16 years of age and women employed in industry and mines. The maximum hours of work are fixed at 11 per day including at least one hour of rest, and the minimum number of rest days at 2 per month, and 4 if the work is divided into more than 2 shifts. In underground mines, the limitation of working hours to 10 including one hour of rest applies to all miners including adult male workers. No statutory regulation of hours of work exists for transport workers; those employed by State railways and communications are protected by the internal regulations of the respective departments. Shops and hairdressing saloons employing 50 persons or more are placed under the same legal restrictions as factories and mines so far as hours of work are concerned. The closing hour for small shops is generally fixed at 10 p.m.

As regards actual hours of work, in industry both daily working hours and working days per month were reduced considerably during the period between 1926 and 1931. The trend has been reversed, however, since 1932, and especially since 1937. According to a report published by the Bank of Japan, in June 1938 the actual daily hours of work in those branches of the textile industry in which a majority of the workers are women were less than 10, the limit fixed by law

for hours of work including breaks. In the heavy and chemical industries where ammunition is produced, hours varying between 10 hours and 24 minutes and 10 hours and 48 minutes were worked per day in the engineering, shipbuilding, metal-working and artificial manure industries; less than 10 hours was reported in the vehicle industry and the tool and instrument industries. In all other industries, the daily working hours were below 10, except in the paper and leather-goods industries. The average working hours for all industries in June 1938 were 9 hours and 59 minutes per day, and the number of working days per month 27.5, showing an increase of 13 minutes per day and 0.7 in days per month as compared with the figures for the same month of 1933.

In mines, the actual hours of work fell steadily after 1927, and even after 1932, although a slight increase was noted during 1937 and 1938. According to the Bank of Japan, in June 1938 the actual daily hours of work in coal mines were 8 hours and 48 minutes for underground work and 9 hours and 39 minutes for surface work, the general average being 9 hours and 14 minutes. The weekly rest was generally observed. In metal mines, 8 hours and 7 minutes were worked underground per day, 8 hours and 55 minutes above-ground, and 8 hours and 35 minutes as a general average, and the average working days per month were 27.6. Average working hours for all mine workers, underground and surface, were 9 per day, with 27.1 working days per month.

In transport, the Imperial Cabinet reports that the average daily hours of work for all railway workers in June 1938 were 10 hours and 24 minutes and the monthly working days 25.6. In tramway services, 9 hours and 7 minutes were worked per day on 24.3 days per month, and in motor-bus services 8 hours and 54 minutes per day on 25.9 days per month. In the postal, telephone and telegraph services, 7 hours and 28 minutes were the average daily hours of work and the monthly working days 25.9. In shops, compulsory closing hours came into operation in October 1938, and the results are still unknown.

Conditions of Work in Syria and the Lebanon under French Mandate

Two articles on this subject have already been published in the *Review*, one summarising the results of an enquiry into conditions of work in the Lebanon [1] and the other containing information collected early in 1933 with regard to conditions of work in the fifteen principal urban centres of handicrafts and modern mechanised industry in Syria and the Lebanon [2].

[1] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 5, Nov. 1933 : " A Contribution to the Study of Labour Conditions in the Lebanon ", by Fuad ABU-IZZIDDIN and George HAKIM.

[2] *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, March 1934 : " Working Conditions in Handicrafts and Modern Industry in Syria ".

Subsequently, the Mandatory Power itself carried out a new enquiry [1], the framework of which was much the same as that of 1933, but which amplified the information collected at the earlier date and dealt with some points in greater detail.

The following pages contain a summary of the later enquiry. The situation of the old industries in 1913 and the end of 1937 are compared, the main conditions of work in the old and new industries described, and certain conclusions drawn regarding the improvements needed in legislation and organisation.

The Old Industries

Their Importance

The paramount importance of the old industries in Syria and the Lebanon is shown by the number of workers and craftsmen they employ. At the end of 1937, this number was 170,778, of whom 90,065 were men, 58,413 women, and 22,300 children. At the same date, the new industries only employed 33,149 persons. The old industries had, however, shrunk considerably since 1913, when they provided employment for 309,525 persons.

Nature of the Industries

It appears from the information collected that at the end of 1937 the breeding of silk worms in the Lebanon was the occupation which provided employment for the greatest number of people, the total number employed being 65,800.

Next came the cotton and silk weaving industry in Syria, the chief centres of which, in order of importance, were the following; Aleppo, with 15,099 workers; Damascus, with 6,500 employed in hand-loom weaving and 4,000 in weaving "abe" [2]; Homs, with 2,400 persons employed in hand-loom weaving, 1,600 in preparing and finishing cloth, and 700 in weaving "abe"; and lastly Hama, with 600 persons employed in hand-loom weaving and 200 in preparing and finishing.

The clothing and furniture industries, of which these are branches, include other trades, which in 1937 provided employment as follows:

Bootmaking: Beirut, 5,000; Damascus, 2,500; Aleppo, 1,600; Tripoli, 1,200; Saida, 550.

Sheepskin shoes: Aleppo, 1,400.

Tailoring: Beirut, 700; Damascus, 1,300; Aleppo, 1,080; Homs, 720; Hama, 300.

Cabinet-making and inlaid work: Beirut, 2,000; Damascus, 1,400.

Aleppo seems to have a large building industry, which employed 2,000 quarrymen, 2,800 lime mixers, 4,500 bricklayers and masons (including helpers), and 1,400 stone pavers.

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[1] The chief results of this enquiry were embodied in the last report submitted by the Mandatory Power to the League of Nations: République Française: Ministère des Affaires Etrangères: *Rapport à la Société des Nations sur la Situation de la Syrie et du Liban (Année 1937)*. Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, 1938.

[2] A coarse woollen cloth used for making burnouses for the villagers.

The foodstuffs industry includes bakers (2,850 in Damascus and 1,500 in Aleppo); 100 persons were employed in making sweetmeats in Saida.

Further, the companies holding old concessions furnished employment as follows:

Tobacco monopoly, 1,900; Damascus, Hama and Extensions Railway, 1,319; the Syrian Baghdad Railway, 725; tramways and electricity undertakings, 563; harbour company, 375.

The preparing and transforming of agricultural products employed the following numbers: picking and packing citrous fruits, 9,000 workers in Tripoli and 860 in Beirut; flour milling, 1,200 workers in Damascus.

Lastly, there were 240 seamen and fishermen in Saida and 1,850 in the island of Road.

Only the more important trades have been mentioned above; the enquiry also covered a large number of small trades and industries which need not be referred to here.

Recovery of the Old Industries

Comparing the situation in 1913 with that in 1937, the French Government points out in its report that although some industries are declining—for instance, hand-loom weaving, the number of looms having fallen from 10,000 to 3,000 in Damascus, from 9,750 to 6,400 in Aleppo, and from 11,000 to 2,400 in Homs—other industries manage to keep alive, partly by paying very low wages and partly by trying to produce articles that satisfy modern tastes.

Striking examples of such attempts are to be found in the hand-tufted carpet industry in Aleppo, where the number of looms rose from 200 to 300, the glass-making and embroidery trades in Damascus, cutlery in Djezzine, and the making of esparto articles in the Jebel Druse.

New industries have come into being as well, more especially those making for comfort and aesthetic improvements: the building and clothing industries, the beauty preparations trade, hotel keeping, etc.

There has also been some development in the citrous fruits trade in Tripoli owing to the demand of European customers for careful sorting and packing.

The Mandatory Power does not believe that the old industries can be revived by tariff protection or by trying to secure tariff reductions from foreign countries.

On the other hand, it suggests that the use of electricity as driving power for weaving looms would lower costs of production and increase output. This has been proved in the case of some machines for preparing warp; electric power is now commonly used for driving such machinery in Aleppo and Damascus. The same remarks do not, however, apply to weaving, for if electric were to be substituted for manual power, the weavers would have to scrap their wooden looms and buy iron ones instead, at a cost of at least 3,000 francs each. This could not be done without financial assistance from the State

or from an industrial bank supported by the State, since the replacement of the 6,000 hand-looms used in Aleppo would involve expenditure which the employers would be unwilling to finance. It would also be quite beyond the means of the hand-loom weavers themselves, their earnings being very low.

Accordingly, the Mandatory Power takes the view that the best means of improving the lot of the craftsmen in Syria and the Lebanon would be to organise and regulate production, prevent fraud, and educate a generation of craftsmen who would be capable of adapting their trade and production to suit modern requirements.

The Modern Industries

Their Nature and Importance

As yet, the modern industries provide only a moderate volume of employment, the number of persons employed in 1937 being 33,149, of whom 24,007 were men, 6,379 women, and 2,763 children.

The principal branches of industry covered by the census are mentioned below in order of size, the number of persons employed in the various localities being as follows :

Motor and lorry drivers : Aleppo, 500 ; Beirut, 11,500 ; total, 12,000.

Embroidery : Damascus, 3,000 ; Aleppo, 400 ; total, 3,400.

Stocking, sock and knitting factories : Damascus, 510 ; Aleppo, 1,740 ; Beirut, 800 ; total, 3,050.

Mechanical weaving : Damascus, 650 ; Aleppo, 1,700 ; Homs, 300 ; Beirut, 350 ; total, 3,000.

Cements and concrete : Damascus, 570 ; Aleppo, 160 ; Homs, 50 ; Beirut, 500 ; Tripoli (Lebanon Cement Company), 844 ; total, 2,124.

Oil and petrol : Beirut, 1,257.

Harbour and aerodrome development : Beirut, 1,222.

Boot and shoe manufacturing : Tripoli, 50 ; Beirut, 1,050 ; total, 1,100.

Syrian Preserves and Sweetmeats Company : Damascus, 1,000.

Conditions of Work

Employment and Unemployment

The summary statement of employment in the 203 trades covered by the enquiry shows that in 1937 these trades employed 203,927 workers in all, as compared with 309,525 in 1913. It does not, however, follow that the difference, 105,598, is the figure for unemployment in Syria and the Lebanon.

The difference is mainly due to the decline in the Lebanon silkworm-breeding trade, which in 1913 provided employment for 179,600 persons and in 1937 for only 65,800, the majority of whom are women. That decline did not, however, throw 113,800 persons out of employment. Many of the workers had only been in seasonal employment, and a substantial proportion of the inhabitants of the Lebanon has

migrated to the coast, where they have found work, the mountain population having appreciably decreased in consequence.

The official statistics for births, deaths, and marriages, do not reflect this migration accurately ; when the last census was taken in 1932 most of the inhabitants of the Lebanon who came from the up-country villages went home to register.

In Syria, the decline in employment has chiefly affected women employed in handicrafts. In 1913 a very large number of women was employed in re-winding raw silk before weaving ; nowadays the raw silk is re-wound mechanically in up-to-date spinning mills. The thousands of women who were employed in this operation must not, however, be considered as unemployed, since they only did the work intermittently, and spent their earnings almost exclusively on clothes for themselves and their children.

Moreover, whereas before the war workers in many of the handicrafts were employed only for part of the year, in the modern industries they are employed throughout the year. Cases have been mentioned in the Lebanon of carpenters and master bricklayers or masons who have accepted employment as operatives in mechanical weaving mills because they could then be sure of having employment all the year round.

Allowance must also be made for the development of trade. Formerly there were few retailers, and they were grouped in special bazaars. Owing to urban development on the one hand and the needs of modern life on the other, small retail shops are being opened here and there to serve the daily needs of twenty to thirty families. The number of hawkers has risen, and there has been a very considerable increase in the number of tradesmen, small brokers, and commercial employees.

Lastly, craftsmen's children, who have learnt to read and write and do not want to go into their father's trade, tend to look for employment in public service and in offices.

The series of public works schemes that have been carried out has so far provided employment for anyone who is inclined to work in the large number of yards opened in Syria and the Lebanon.

Strictly speaking, then, there is no unemployment in these countries.

That does not mean, however, that poverty is uncommon among craftsmen and workers. Some of the craftsmen do not earn enough, others only work three or five days a week, others again are only in seasonal employment.

In the opinion of the Mandatory Power there is only one possible remedy for this grave problem, which has become even more acute owing to the high cost of living at present : that remedy is charity.

For Christians there is a large number of charitable institutions such as almshouses, milk distribution centres for infants, hospitals, homes for aged persons, free schools, the charitable institutions of Saint Vincent de Paul, etc., which provide relief for families in straitened circumstances. The relief may be either in cash or in kind.

Among the Moslems such organisations are frequently lacking. On the other hand, they have the *Zakat*, the obligation laid by the

Koran on all wealthy persons to give one-fifth of their income to the poor. The observance of the rule is far from strict, but each craftsman's family is to some extent protected by some other wealthier family, which supplies it with food, clothing, and, if need be, cash.

The Mandatory Power does not think that part-time unemployment could be reduced by providing agricultural employment for the workers concerned. There are no signs in Syria and the Lebanon of a "back to the land" movement. Moreover, there would be no point in sending town dwellers back to the land at a time when the rural population itself is leaving the land for the towns.

Daily Hours of Work

As regards hours of work, the enquiry mentions practices which were common in 1913 and had not entirely disappeared by 1937.

Before the war, hours of work were regulated by sunrise and sunset. When the sun rose in the morning all the workers went to their workshops, taking with them what food they would need during the day. Consequently, in summer, hours of work were longer than in winter, wages remaining unchanged. Arab time, which was the only time known to the workers before the war, was set by sundial, twelve o'clock being the exact moment at which the sun disappeared on the horizon. As soon as the twelfth hour had come the worker was allowed to leave his workshop or yard. Accordingly much of the carpentering and building work, for which day wages were paid, was postponed till summer, so that the employer might have the benefit of a longer working day.

Now this practice is disappearing, In the old trades the workers do not come to work as early in summer as they used to do. On the coast, work seldom begins before 6 or 6.30, even when the sun rises at 4.40 or 5 a.m. Moreover, a longer rest is taken at mid-day, so that workers may lie down in the shade for a while after eating at leisure.

There is a tendency for 10 hours to be worked in the day in the old industries and 9 in the new.

The results of the enquiry confirm these average figures, the hours observed in the more important old and new industries being as follows :

Old Industries.

Silkworm breeding industry in the Lebanon : 10 to 12 hours a day, the number of days worked in the year ranging from 35 to 150.

Weaving industry in Syria :

Handloom weaving, including the preparation of the yarn and the finishing of cloth : Aleppo and Damascus, 10½ a day, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year ; Homs, 10 hours in winter and 11 in summer, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year ; Hama, 11 hours, with about 35 days' unemployment in the year.

The weaving of "abe" is a home craft, paid for at piece rates, the weavers working as many hours as they like.

New Industries.

Motor and lorry-drivers: in Aleppo, the number of hours worked in the day varies according to the demand, drivers being unemployed for about 65 days in the year; in Beirut hours of work are the same, but unemployment is rare.

Embroidery: in Damascus (trades other than the "aghabani", which is a type of embroidery done on sewing machines) the work is done at home during spare time; in Aleppo (hand embroidery on machines) 10 hours are worked in the day, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year.

Manufacture of stockings and socks, and knitting: in Damascus, 11 hours a day with about 65 days' unemployment in the year; in Aleppo (where 1,200 workers are employed in knitting stockings and socks on machines operated by hand), a wage of 2 francs is paid for work lasting about 8 hours but done in spare time, while 500 workers employed in mechanical knitting work 10 hours a day and are unemployed for 80 days in the year; in Beirut (stockings, socks, and knitted underwear), 9½ hours in the day, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year.

Mechanical weaving: Damascus (cotton and silk), 9 hours with bonuses for overtime and about 65 days' unemployment in the year; Aleppo, 10 hours in the day, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year; Homs (silk and allied trades), similar conditions; Beirut (same industry), similar conditions.

Cement and concrete: Damascus (cement tiles), 9 hours, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year; Aleppo and Homs (cement tiles), 10 hours, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year; Beirut (concrete workers), 9 hours in the day, the workers being employed for 150 days in preparing and spreading concrete; in Tripoli (Lebanon Cement Company), 576 workers work 8 hours a day and are unemployed for 65 days in the year, while 268 workers work 9 hours a day and are unemployed for 45 days in the year.

Oil and petrol: Beirut (distribution of oil and petrol) and Tripoli (Iraq Petroleum Company), 8 hours a day, with about 65 days' unemployment in the year.

Harbour and aerodrome development in Beirut: between 8 and 9 hours a day with 62 days' unemployment in the year.

Boot and shoe manufacture: Tripoli, 9 hours a day with, as a rule, 65 days' unemployment in the year; Beirut (modern boot and shoe factory), 10 hours a day, with, as a rule, 65 days' unemployment in the year.

Syrian Preserves and Sweetmeats Company (Damascus): 9 hours a day, with 45 days' full employment in the year.

This information shows that daily hours of work vary not only with custom and climate, as stated above, but also according to the nature of the work itself, whether it is done in a workshop or at home, and whether paid for at piece rates or by the day. In this respect it may be well to add that in 1937, in the old industries, 54,739 workers or craftsmen were paid by the day, while 116,039 were paid at piece rates. In the same industries, 89,063 workers were employed

in workshops, and 81,715 at home. In the new industries 17,710 workers were paid by the day and 15,489 at piece rates.

Holidays

The holidays vary according as the workers are Moslems, Christians, or Jews.

Before the war, the Moslems did not regularly rest on Fridays; they merely went to the mosque at mid-day and then either returned to work or went for a walk. It is only since the war that they have been urged, and sometimes with threats, to rest on Fridays, although their religion does not oblige them to do so. Otherwise the Moslems have only two holidays a year, each of which ought to last three days, but the workers usually take a day off before and after these three days, so that altogether they take 10 days off in the year.

The Christians have always rested on Sundays and religious holidays, the number of which is considerable in the Eastern churches: 15 to 20 days a year or, including Sundays, 67 to 72.

Before the war, when wages were fairly high as compared with the cost of living, the Christians often rested for two consecutive days in the week, Sunday and Monday; Moslems employed by Christians often rested on Monday too.

The Jews rest on Saturdays and religious holidays.

The significance of these rules and practices will appear more clearly from the following table, which shows the number of Moslems, Christians, and Jews, employed in 1937 in the old and new industries:

Religious group	Old industries	New industries
Moslems	87,061	15,118
Christians	82,315	17,448
Jews	1,402	583

Wages

Wages and the Cost of Living.

Investigation in various parts of Syria and the Lebanon has revealed with sufficient exactness the proportion in which the cost of living has changed since the end of the Ottoman régime, and permits an examination of the question whether wages have risen to the same extent as the cost of living.

First of all, the total monthly expenditure which a family of average means, composed of five persons, had to make in December 1913 and December 1937 is compared below:

	December 1913 (Gold francs)	December 1937 (Francs)
Beirut	70.60	663.20
Damascus	64.65	505.60
Aleppo	58.55	502.60
Average	64.60	560.50

Next, a comparison of average wages in December 1913 and December 1937 gives the following results:

	December 1913 (Gold francs)	December 1937 (Francs)
Beirut	3.24	14.00
Damascus	2.96	10.70
Aleppo	2.45	10.50
Average	2.88	11.73

It follows that in order to buy the same quantity of goods of immediate necessity, of a given quality, a worker had to do 22½ days' work in 1913 and 48 days' work in 1937.

It must, however, be added that the situation has grown worse only since September 1936, when the currency was devalued. The cost-of-living index number (100 for the twelve months preceding devaluation—October 1935 to September 1936) had risen by December 1937 to 184 in Beirut, 194.4 in Damascus, and 204 in Aleppo, while wages had not risen by more than 15-25 per cent.

Average Daily Earnings.

The table summarising the results of the enquiry shows that average daily earnings were as follows for old and new industries respectively:

Industries	1913 (Gold francs)			1937 (Francs)		
	Men	Women	Children	Men	Women	Children
Old industries	2.34	0.98	0.30	10.50	4.93	2.33
New industries	—	—	—	13.40	5.05	4.10
All industries	2.34	0.98	0.30	11.95	4.99	3.40

Further, it is interesting to compare the average wages paid in 1913 and 1937 in a particularly important industry—weaving—in Aleppo. Hand-loom weaving, including the preparation of the thread and the finishing of the cloth, provided the following average daily earnings for the handicraftsmen engaged therein (who numbered 22,965 in 1913 and 13,400 in 1937):

	1913 (Gold francs)	1937 (Francs)
Men	2.30	6.10
Women	0.40	1.80
Children	0.25	1.50

In power-loom weaving, including the preparation of the thread, the average daily earnings of the 1,700 workers in 1937 were 14 francs for men, 8 francs for women, and 5 francs for children.

A comparison of these various data shows that the earnings of the craftsmen in hand-loom weaving fell off considerably between 1913

and 1937, and that the amounts earned in the latter year were considerably less than could be obtained in power-loom weaving.

The report attributes the decline in earnings in the older branch of the industry first of all to the substitution of foreign cloth of a similar type for local cloth in Syria itself, and secondly to the loss of the Turkish and Iraq markets. It states, on the other hand, that the position of the power-loom weaving industry is at present good.

All these data show that wages vary with the character of the industry considered, its equipment and markets, and the sex of the workers employed. A closer examination shows also that the wages vary according as day or piece rates are paid and as the work is done at home or in workshops. Lastly, the competition between immigrant and native workers has not been devoid of effect on the wage level.

Competition from Immigrant Labour

The table summarising the results of the enquiry quotes the following numbers of native and immigrant workers in 1913 and 1937 :

Industries	1913		1937	
	Natives	Immigrants	Natives	Immigrants
Old industries	308,975	550	156,450	14,328
New industries	—	—	26,876	6,273

The enquiry specially brought out the influence exerted by Armenian and Syriac immigrants, who have almost all settled in the cities of Syria and the Lebanon. Those inhabiting the Upper Jezireh and engaged in agriculture are an exception ; and most of them come from the neighbouring regions—Mardine, Diyarbekir, and Northern Iraq.

The principal trades in which these immigrants engage are as follows, in order of importance : men : tailors, bootmakers, mechanics, turners, fitters, plumbers, bricklayers and masons, carpenters, concrete workers, cabinet-makers, boiler-makers, hairdressers, bakers, chauffeurs, soldiers ; women : embroidery (needle or crochet), rug-making, weaving, domestic work.

It may be said in general that the Armenian worker is to be found wherever the work requires skill and initiative. Employers appreciate his intelligence, his readiness to find the best means of overcoming the difficulties of the trade, his endurance, and the low wages he requires. Work done by an Armenian tends to be better finished than that of a native worker.

Though Armenian labour has helped to throw between four and five thousand native handicraftsmen and labourers out of employment for one or two days a week, it has also facilitated the introduction of important modern industries, which now employ large numbers of native workers. The directors of certain big undertakings declare

that without the Armenian workers they would have hesitated to start operations in Syria and the Lebanon, or that they would have been obliged to have recourse to European labour.

It is true that the competition of Armenian labour has helped to bring down the wage level by 20-25 per cent. in the industries where such workers are sufficiently numerous; but low wages are considered by the Mandatory Power as the best means of struggling against invasion by foreign products, which would cause unemployment, and of facilitating exports, which are a necessity for the country.

The Guild Movement

There are no registered guilds in the Lebanon. In Syria the Ottoman Act relating to guilds of 24 July 1912 was repealed by Legislative Decree No. 152 of 18 September 1935, which established occupational associations.[1] The enquiry and the reports of the Mandatory Power give interesting data on the guilds and on the results of enforcement of the recent Decree; these are summarised below.

Under the Ottoman régime the guild was a genuine association of employers, and enabled them to watch over the interests and good name of the industry; it prevented undue competition, fixed the holidays and wage rates, and appointed the *sheikh-kar*, or guardian of customs. The occupational association has destroyed all this, for its members belong to all the classes engaged in a given trade. Employer and worker consequently belong on the same footing and enjoy the same rights. In these circumstances, as was to be expected, the numerical superiority of the workers dissatisfies the employers, who have retired to the background. The meetings of these associations now hardly differ from those of trade unions in France.

It may not be without interest to describe in this connection the traditional trade organisation of the Aleppo weavers, and the manner in which the relations between the 50 employers and the over 10,000 handicraftsmen are governed. The employers adopt an agreed policy on questions concerning the trade; the weavers on their part have leaders known as *rayes*, who know both the customs of the trade and the special conditions agreed for the work undertaken. When a worker is in conflict with his employer, he calls on his *rayes* to go and plead his cause; if the worker's case is good and the employer still refuses to give him satisfaction (which is relatively seldom), the *rayes* informs all the weavers working for the employer in question. Work is immediately stopped, the threads are cut and returned, and no weaver may thenceforward work for the employer until the injured handicraftsman has been given satisfaction. The *rayes* is therefore feared by employers and differences of the sort described are avoided as far as possible.

The *rayes* does not work at the loom; his duty is simply that of visiting the weavers and asking them if they have any complaint. There are eight *rayes* at Aleppo, with a chief known as the *sheikh-el-*

[1] Appendix 2 to the *Journal officiel de la République Syrienne*, 31 Oct. 1935, No. 20, p. 172.

rias. They have no office, but have their headquarters in a café in the centre of the town. They charge a tax on the workers of one franc per loom per month, but most of the workers do not pay, or only one month in three.

This organisation is not prescribed by any legislative measure. According to the Mandatory Power, it satisfies a specific need and tends to establish a real balance of power and influence between employers and workers.[1]

The application of the Legislative Decree of 18 September 1935, which established occupational associations in Syria, has—as the above information shows—destroyed the old guilds and replaced them by a scheme ensuring the preponderance of the workers. Moreover, in its report for 1936 [2], the Mandatory Power mentions other disadvantages alleged to have accompanied enforcement of the Decree. The Mandatory Power had attempted to direct the activity of these associations towards questions closely related to the occupations represented by each, and thus to protect them from the influence of politics and politicians. At first the results of the elections for the committees of the different associations justified the hope that this object would in the long run be achieved. However, the occupational activity of the committees in 1936 was negligible, and, but for a number of attempts by certain members to obtain personal advantages from the authority among other workers which their office confers, the existence of these bodies would have passed unnoticed. It appears that the disturbances which occurred shortly after the enforcement of the Decree had the effect of attributing to it a political object not originally intended, and that its social value was not appreciated by the mass of the workers, preoccupied as they were by other matters. Lastly, the Mandatory Power considers that the indifference may be attributed to the difficulty, in the present state of affairs, of bringing employers and workers into a single organisation.

Further, the report of the French Government for 1937 [3] states that strikes of a political character have been relatively rare. Almost all the strikes which occurred were due to demands for increased wages following the devaluation of the currency. The employers gave way to the strikers on each occasion but did not always keep their word. This explains why the wage level in francs has only risen by 15-25 per cent. since the devaluation of September 1936.

Labour Legislation

Apart from the Legislative Decree of 18 September 1935 mentioned above, labour legislation in Syria consists of one other Decree, No. 32 of 24 June 1936, concerning the employment of women and children.[4]

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[1] Report to the League of Nations (1937), *op. cit.*, pp. 27-28.

[2] *Rapport à la Société des Nations sur la situation de la Syrie et du Liban (Année 1936)*, p. 75.

[3] P. 28.

[4] *Journal officiel de la République Syrienne*, 6 Aug. 1936, p. 183 ; this Decree repealed the Order of 6 July 1930 concerning the employment of children.

The reports of the Mandatory Power give no details concerning the enforcement of this latter Decree. Further, the report for 1937 [1] stated that Labour Bills, modelled on French legislation, were before the Syrian Parliament, and that the occupational organisations were urging the deputies to secure satisfaction for certain of the workers' demands, the chief of which are the fixing of a maximum for hours of work, the establishment of minimum wage rates, and the grant of holidays with pay.

In the Lebanon, labour legislation consists more particularly of the Code of Obligations and Contracts issued in 1932 [2], which repeals all the provisions of the Turkish Code and other measures inconsistent with its own terms. The provisions of the Code relating to hire of services (contract of employment) were amended by an Act of 27 May 1937.[3] This provides for compensation for dismissal of members of staffs (workers or salaried employees) of private undertakings and offices. When it is the employer who terminates the contract, and this action is not due to the employee's failure to observe the contract or other offence on his part, the employee is entitled to compensation equal to a month's wages or salary (at the rate last paid) for each year's service up to five years, and a fortnight's wages or salary for each subsequent year.[4] The reports of the Mandatory Power give no information regarding the enforcement of this scheme.

On the other hand, interesting information is given about the application of the Lebanese law relating to the employment of women and children. The Mandatory Power had already stated in 1936 that observance of the provisions of the Act of 17 April 1935 [5] relating to the employment of women and children was supervised in Beirut by a labour inspector (assisted by a municipal medical officer) and visiting nurses nominated by the municipal authorities. Outside the capital, the doctors of the *cazas* (local government areas), also assisted by visiting nurses, are responsible for this inspection.[6] The report for 1937 states that the enforcement of the Act has met with considerable obstruction by the persons concerned. When a child who has not reached the minimum age is dismissed owing to intervention by the labour inspector [7], members of the family come and complain of having lost a source of income necessary for the livelihood of the child and his younger brothers. These complaints are stated to be all the keener because the children cannot all find places in the schools. As regards women, it often happens that a woman worker refuses to state the number of hours during which she works for fear of intervention by the inspector and consequent dismissal.

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[1] P. 28.

[2] RÉPUBLIQUE LIBANAISE : *Code des obligations et des contrats*, Imprimerie Victoire (Azar), Beirut, and *Supplément au Journal officiel de la République Libanaise*, 11 April 1932.

[3] *Journal officiel de la République Libanaise*, 28 May 1937.

[4] Report for 1937, p. 164.

[5] *Journal officiel de la République Libanaise*, 22 April 1935.

[6] Report for 1936, p. 30.

[7] The Lebanese Government, it is stated, has appointed two labour inspectors to secure observance of existing legislation (report for 1937, p. 164).

Apart from these measures the French Government states, in its report for 1937 [1], that a Bill to provide fair and rapid compensation for workers who are victims of industrial accidents is now before the Lebanese Chamber of Deputies.

Lastly, as regards the contemplated new social legislation for Syria and the Lebanon, the same report states [2] that local industrial circles fear the serious consequences which may follow a sudden change in regional traditions and customs. It is feared, above all, that the responsible authorities will be persuaded to introduce reforms which would be a servile imitation of the schemes in force in Western industrial countries, although it has not yet been proved that the present organisation of those countries is ideal. It is hoped, however, that the authorities will have sufficient power to act by degrees and with the greatest care, taking account of the particular needs and social conditions of Syria and the Lebanon. Before social laws are issued and the workers are given weapons against their employers, it is said, the handicrafts should be protected and raised once more to an honoured place. Since, as is shown by the enquiry analysed above, the old guild spirit has survived the official desertion of the guilds, a return should be made to that system, adapted, of course, to present needs.

[1] P. 164.
[2] P. 28.

STATISTICS

Quarterly Statistical Tables

The following tables give a survey of statistics of employment and unemployment, actual hours of work, average wages, and the cost of living, in countries for which regular statistics are available. The figures have been compiled by the International Labour Office from figures published or communicated by the statistical authorities of the various countries. In a few cases statistics compiled by non-official bodies have been used. Most of the series given in the form of index numbers have been computed by the Office on the base 1929 = 100. [1]

There are many differences in the methods of compilation of these statistics in different countries, which must be taken into account in interpreting the figures; the more important differences are indicated, as far as possible, in the table headings. In general, the statistics give a reliable picture of fluctuations in time and it is between these that international comparisons can most usefully be made.

In the tables referring to employment, unemployment, actual hours of work, and average wages, an essential distinction has been made between the different *types* (or sources) of statistics. Each type of series constitutes a more or less appropriate measure of the phenomenon dealt with, and is subject to special qualifications; these are mentioned in the introductory note to each table. The *economic scope* of the series [2] is indicated by mention of the main economic groups (agriculture, mines, industries, transport, commerce, administration) covered by the statistics, in accordance with the international scheme adopted by the Office [3]. The mention of one of these groups

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[1] In the case of series not dating back to that year the index figures have been computed on the base of the year nearest to 1929, and printed in italics.

[2] The economic scope of the statistics is not indicated in the unemployment table on account of the technical difficulties involved in ascertaining it in the case of certain series.

[3] Cf. *Year-Book of Labour Statistics*, 1938, p. VII.

does not necessarily mean, however, that the statistics cover all the branches of which it is composed, but that it covers at least the most important of them ; when a group is represented only by one or two branches of very small importance (for example, " mines " by quarries, or " transport " by tramways), it is not mentioned in the heading. In some tables, these indications are completed by mention of the *categories of employees* considered in the economic groups covered (wage earners and salaried employees ; skilled and unskilled workers ; men and women). These distinctions should not be taken in too strict a sense ; some of them are based on conceptions capable of rather widely differing interpretation from country to country. Finally, the mention at the foot of each table of the *number of persons* covered by the statistics at a recent date makes it possible to estimate approximately the extent to which the series is representative, by comparing the figure given with the total number of workers in the category or economic group in question.

Except where otherwise stated, monthly and quarterly figures relate to the middle or end of the period covered ; the figures published as relating to the first day of the month (or quarter) are quoted in the tables prepared by the Office as referring to the previous month (or quarter).

Detailed series for the different economic branches (groups of items of expenditure in the case of cost-of-living indexes) are published regularly in the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics.*

Explanation of Signs Used in the Tables

The sign * signifies : " figures do not exist ".
The sign — signifies : " figures not yet received ".
The sign † signifies : " provisional figures ".
The sign —— between two figures of a series signifies that the former series has been replaced by another, or revised.
The sign ʳ signifies : " figure revised since the previous issue ".
The sign ᵉ signifies : " economic group represented by a few branches only ".
Figures in *thick-faced* type : indexes (100) of the base year (in all tables of index numbers).
Figures in *italics :* index numbers with a year later than 1929 as base.

Employment

The index numbers relating to employment in the table given below are intended to show two different aspects of fluctuations in employment :

(*a*) Fluctuations in the *number of employed persons*, generally represented by the total recorded at a specified date, but sometimes by the average number in a given period, no distinction being made between persons working full time and those working more or less than full time ; fluctuations in these numbers are due to many factors, among which may be distinguished, on the one hand, those connected with cyclical and seasonal fluctuations in economic activity (including those due to action by the public authorities) and, on the other, those resulting from general population movements and changes in the social structure of the population ; the two last-mentioned factors may, in the course of a few years, have a considerable influence, raising the indexes to relatively high levels, while the " degree of employment "—that is, the proportion of employable workers actually in employment—remains equal or inferior to that of the previous period.[1]

(*b*) Fluctuations in the *total number of hours worked* by all the persons in employment during a specified period—for example, a month, a quarter, or some other period falling within a month or a quarter ; these series indicate the " volume of employment "—that is, the number of persons in employment (in the sense defined above) in conjunction with fluctuations in the duration of employment.

Most of these index figures have been computed by the Office, either on the basis of series of absolute figures or by converting the base of the original index figures. The data have been obtained from *statistics of different types :*

(a) *Social insurance statistics* (generally sickness or accident insurance). These give the number of insured persons (or of contributions paid), and thus constitute a measure of the number of persons in employment (unemployed persons being exempt from the obligation to pay contributions). These statistics constitute a kind of complete and continuous census, but their scope is determined by the provisions which regulate the insurance scheme (and by any changes that may be made in it).

(b) *Unemployment insurance statistics.* These yield, by deducting the number of unemployed from the total number of insured workers, the number of persons in employment. The figures are subject to the

[1] For two countries, in the absence of statistics of the numbers in employment, series have been given expressing the " degree of employment ".

same limitations as regards scope as the data derived from other branches of social insurance; further, the significance of the number of registered unemployed depends on the provisions relating to registration (which is generally connected with the acquisition of the right to unemployment benefit); in many cases, also, the figures showing the total number of insured persons are not constantly kept up to date. Where the scope of an insurance scheme is liable to fairly wide variations, as in some voluntary schemes, it has been necessary to calculate the indexes on the basis of the percentages unemployed; they then indicate fluctuations in the *degree of employment* (eliminating fluctuations in general population trends and changes in the social structure).

(c) *Statistics of establishments.* These are based on the numbers of workers on the payrolls of certain establishments at a given date in each month (or quarter), and sometimes also on the total number of hours worked during a specific pay period.[1] These statistics fall into three main groups:

(i) Those which relate to all, or nearly all, the establishments in the branches concerned, and are therefore comparable, to a large extent, with the continuous censuses of the social insurance schemes.

(ii) Returns relating to selected establishments, which may be great or small and more or less constant. In order to allow for variations in the number of returns received, the indexes are compiled either by relating the figures at each date to those of the same establishments at the basic date or by means of chain indexes (comparing the figures received for each date with those of the same establishments at the preceding date, and thus compiling a chain of ratios). It is difficult, in any case, to ensure that the sample of establishments is always equally representative of the basic trends resulting from general population movements and structural changes; usually the series in question take only a part of these factors into account, and only to a limited extent, and thus reflect to some extent the degree of employment rather than the numbers in employment.

(iii) The procedure is adopted in some countries of taking complete or practically complete censuses at longer intervals and correcting the series in order to overcome the disadvantage referred to under (ii).

The statistics of a few countries, however, cannot strictly be assigned to any one of these groups, but fall between two of them, especially between the first and the second.

[1] In some countries the total pay in wages is also recorded and serves for the compilation of statistics of individual and aggregate wages.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT

Indexes of numbers in employment and of total hours worked

(*1929 = 100*[1])

Date	Germany (excluding Austria)				Austria	Australia	Belgium
	Sickness insur. statistics	Statistics of establishments			Sickness insurance stat.	Statistics of establishments	Voluntary unemp. insurance stat.
	Agric., mines, ind., transport, comm., adm.	Mines, industries			Mines, ind., transport	Industries	Mines, ind., transport *; commerce *
	Wage earners, sal. employees	Wage earners		Salaried empl.	Wage earners, sal. employees	Wage earners, sal. employees	Wage earners, sal. employees
	Number	Number	Hours	Number	Number	Number	Degree of employment
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	93.3	87.0	83.5	94.7	95.1	93.0	96.6
1931	81.5	72.0	66.4	83.6	86.6	74.6	87.4
1932	71.1	59.5	53.8	69.6	76.4	74.1	78.2
1933	74.0	65.9	61.5	68.4	70.6	81.8	81.1
1934	85.5	83.5	80.6	76.3	69.8	89.7	78.3
1935	90.6	91.9	88.4	83.5	66.8	99.6	79.9
1936	97.2	100.5	99.4	90.0	64.6	109.4	85.3
1937	104.3	110.8	110.8	97.9	67.4	116.3	88.5
1938	110.9	117.9†	118.9†	105.0†	*	—	—
1938 ; Feb.	103.6	112.4	112.5	101.5	*	125.3	81.7
March	107.0	114.8	115.4	102.2	*	127.5	84.3
April	110.3	116.7	118.8	103.6	*	126.1	85.1
May	112.9	118.3	120.5	104.5	*	124.7	84.7
June	113.7	118.5	118.0	105.0	*	123.4	85.7
July	114.6	119.6	116.3	105.7	*	122.6	86.0
Aug.	115.1	120.0	117.4	106.4	*	123.9	86.6
Sept.	115.0	120.8	122.8	107.0	*	124.4	89.5
Oct.	115.0	121.2	123.8	107.2	*	124.6	85.6
Nov.	115.0	121.8	127.6	107.9	*	124.9	82.9
Dec.	109.5r	120.6†	123.8†	107.9†	*	—	—
1939 : Jan.	110.8	—	—	—	*	—	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	*	—	—
Persons covered Dec. 1937 or 1938	19,266,861	3,500,000		*	926,267	*	916,463

Date	Canada		Denmark	Estonia		United States	
	Stat. of establishments		Stat. of establ.	Statistics of establ.		Stat. of establishments	
	Industries	Mines, ind., transp., comm.	Industries	Industries		Industries	
	Wage earners, salaried employees		Wage earners	Wage earners		Wage earners	
	Number		Hours	Number	Hours	Number	Hours
1929	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	89.9	94.5	*	96.4	94.6	87.2	80.7
1931	78.7	85.3	100.0	87.7	84.2	73.7	62.8
1932	69.7	72.5	*91.6*	81.5	75.4	62.5	46.0
1933	67.8	70.6	*102.4*	83.1	77.6	69.2	53.1
1934	75.7	80.9	*113.5*	97.3	94.9	80.8	59.1
1935	81.6	83.7	*123.2*	109.8	103.6	86.1	66.6
1936	86.6	87.3	*128.9*	126.9	119.7	92.3	76.1
1937	95.8	96.4	*134.6*	145.2	139.1	99.8	81.0
1938	92.2	93.4	*132.0*	147.1†	141.2	81.9	61.0
1938 : Feb.	92.1	90.4	*124.4*	139.4	125.0	83.2	60.2
March	92.3	88.1	*128.6*	144.3	146.8	82.7	60.2
April	92.2	90.1	*130.5*	149.3	127.8	80.8	58.3
May	93.6	93.9	*134.3*	159.6	157.1	78.7	57.1
June	93.2	95.2	*135.0*	155.6	130.3	77.0	55.9
July	91.7	94.0	*130.6*	149.9	141.5	77.3	56.6
Aug.	94.8	96.6	*135.8*	145.2	152.0	80.8	61.9
Sept.	93.8	97.9	*136.5*	143.9	148.4	83.8	65.2
Oct.	92.4	96.1	*138.0*	145.8	146.5	84.4	66.6
Nov.	91.8	95.6	*137.0*	147.7	153.2	85.4	65.8
Dec.	86.9	90.7	*133.0*	146.0†	136.6	86.0	66.2
1939 : Jan.	88.3	89.3	*124.0*	—	—	84.2†	—
Feb.	—	—	*127.4*	—	—	—	—
Persons covered Dec. 1937 or 1938	532,012†	1,041,042†	*	46,573†		4,237,795†	

[1] Except for the series in italics : base : year later than 1929.

For notes relating to the various countries, see also *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 5. Nov. 1938, pp. 700 and 701.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT (*cont.*)

Indexes of numbers in employment and of total hours worked (1929 = 100 [1])

Date	United States (*cont.*)		Finland		France		Great Britain	
	Estimate		Statistics of establishments		Statistics of establishments		Compulsory unempl. ins. stat.	
	N.I.C.B.	A.F.L.	Industries		Mines, industries, transport *, commerce		Industries	Mines, ind., transport *, commerce
	Agr., mines, ind., transp., comm., services	Agr., mines, ind., transp., comm., services						
	Wage earners, salaried employees		Wage earners		Wage earners		Wage earners, salar. employees	
	Number	Number	Number	Hours	Number	Hours	Number	
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	*	100.0	100.0
1930	94.3	95.2	87.0	81.9	100.0	100.0	92.5	95.8
1931	86.7	88.1 †	77.5	71.1	*92.5*	*88.7*	84.5	92.2
1932	78.7	79.8 †	77.6	71.9	*80.9*	*73.6*	84.7	91.4
1933	79.5	80.0 †	83.1	77.6	*79.4*	*74.3*	89.8	94.7
1934	85.4	84.8 †	93.2	88.0	*76.9*	*71.4*	94.5	99.2
1935	88.1	87.8	101.4	97.6	*73.5*	*68.2*	96.0	101.5
1936	93.0	91.7	101.8	98.2	*74.1*	*70.7*	102.2	106.7
1937	96.7	95.3	108.8	105.5	*78.6*	*66.1*	110.2	112.3
1938	90.4 †	90.8	109.0	103.5	*81.2* †	*65.9*	104.1	111.0
1938 : Feb.	88.6	89.9	*	*	*81.9*	*66.3*	*	110.3
March	88.6	89.8	*	*	*81.4*	*65.6*	*	111.0
April	88.8	90.3	109.2	103.7	*80.3*	*64.7*	*	111.1
May	88.8	89.6	*	*	*81.5*	*65.7*	*	111.0
June	89.8	89.8	*	*	*81.7*	*65.9*	*	110.6
July	90.0	90.1	109.8	103.0	*80.8*	*65.3*	104.1	111.1
Aug.	90.7	90.6	*	*	*80.4*	*65.1*	*	111.4
Sept.	92.3	92.1	*	*	*80.3*	*65.2*	*	111.2
Oct.	92.6	92.4	107.7	101.7	*81.1*	*66.3*	*	111.5
Nov.	92.2	92.2	*	*	*81.6*	*67.0*	*	111.2
Dec.	92.6	92.7	*	*	*82.5*	*67.2*	*	111.5
1939 : Jan.	91.2 †	90.2 †	103.6	98.5	*82.6*	*68.8*	*	—
Feb.	—	—	*	*	*85.1*	*71.5*	*	111.1
Persons covered Dec. 1937 or 1938	44,345,000	42,808,188	62,905		2,359,284		5,630,528	11,454,000

Date	Hungary		Italy			Japan	Latvia		Luxemburg
	Sickness insurance statistics		M.C.	C.F.I.		Stat. of establishments	Sickness insur. stat.		Stat. of establishments
	Industries	Mines, ind., transp., comm.	Stat. of establishments			Industries	Industries	Ind., transp., com., adm. *, etc.	Mines, ind., transport
	Wage earners	Wage earners, sal. employees	Industries			Wage earners	Wage earners, salaried employees		Wage earners
	Number		Number	Number	Hours	Number	Number		Number
1929	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0
1930	91.3	94.3	*	97.3	94.2	90.0	*	104.9	98.1
1931	82.9	89.2	*	88.8	83.5	81.7	*	97.5	84.1
1932	73.0	82.0	*	78.5	72.4	82.0	100.0	82.5	67.6
1933	73.6	81.2	*	79.4	75.1	89.9	*112.7*	87.8	64.8
1934	79.9	86.9	100.0	82.9	77.8	100.2	*130.8*	95.1	65.5
1935	85.9	91.2	*117.1*	94.0	81.0	109.7	*142.3*	100.8	66.8
1936	94.7	97.7	*121.6*	94.9	81.0	115.8	*149.6*	107.1	68.8
1937	104.0	104.0	*135.6*	104.5	91.7	128.8	*163.0*	116.3	74.9
1938	112.3	—	*141.0*	110.8 †	95.6 †	—	*172.9* †	123.6 †	76.2
1938 : Feb.	97.7	102.1	*143.6*	105.8	90.0	135.6	*163.4*	119.2	75.6
March	103.9	108.3	*144.2*	111.8	100.4	137.2	*172.2*	122.5	75.3
April	110.2	110.8	*143.4*	112.4	96.0	141.9	*172.9*	121.5	75.3
May	114.0	112.0	*142.4*	113.8	96.4	142.5	*177.3*	124.0	74.2
June	114.5	110.3	*138.6*	113.6	97.7	142.7	*175.9*	124.6	76.8
July	114.4	111.0	*135.3*	111.9	98.9	142.6	*174.1*	125.1	77.3
Aug.	118.0	114.5	*133.1*	112.5	93.8	142.9	*173.1*	124.2	76.8
Sept.	120.3	114.5	*140.0*	115.3	103.3	143.9	*174.7*	124.7	76.1
Oct.	120.5	116.6	*143.0*	112.3	98.0	144.8	*178.8*	126.0	76.7
Nov.	121.6	—	*144.8*	109.9	95.0	145.8	*180.4*	128.5	76.5
Dec.	117.6	—	*143.6*	108.0 †	92.0 †	—	*170.0* †	123.7 †	74.2
1939 : Jan.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	74.0
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	74.1
Persons covered Dec. 1937 or 1938	721.059	1,045,133	1,155,932	1,545,534 †		1,336,219	107,566 †	211,848 †	32,612

[1] Except for the series in italics : base : year later than 1929.

For notes relating to the various countries, see also *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 5, Nov. 1938, pp. 700 and 701.

Abbreviations : N.I.C.B. = National Industrial Conference Board ; A.F.L. = American Federation of Labor ; M.C. = Ministry of Corporations ; C.F.I. = Fascist Confederation of Industry.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT (*concluded*)

Indexes of numbers in employment and of total hours worked (1929 = 100[1])

Date	Norway			Netherlands	Poland			Switzerland
	Statistics of establishments			Voluntary unempl. insurance stat.	Statistics of establishments			Statistics of establishments
	Mines, industries		Mines, industries, transp., commerce	Mines, industries, transp., comm., etc.	Industries		Mines, industries	Industries
	Wage earners			Wage earners, salaried employees	Wage earners, salaried employees			Wage earners
	Number	Hours	Number	Degree of empl.	Number	Hours	Number	Number
1929	*	*	*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	*	*	*	98.0	84.5	82.9	87.2	96.5
1931	*	*	*	90.5	71.3	69.3	74.5	88.3
1932	*	*	*	79.4	62.3	56.9	64.0	75.9
1933	*	*	*	77.7	65.0	58.3	63.7	73.3
1934	*	*	*	76.5	72.0	67.1	69.1	73.7
1935	*99*	*101*	*	72.6	77.1	72.6	72.8	70.4
1936	*104*	*108*	*101*	71.5	83.4	77.9	77.8	70.2
1937	*111*	*112*	*107*	77.7	94.1	89.8	88.0	78.1
1938	*108*	*110*	*108*	79.7†	101.6†	97.8	94.8[2]	77.9
1938: Feb.	*	*	*	74.6	90.7	88.2	86.5	*
March	*103*	*105*	*102*	77.8	95.9	92.2	90.4	77.7
April	*	*	*	79.9	98.6	95.7	92.5	*
May	*	*	*	80.9	101.7	97.6	94.6	*
June	*114*	*113*	*111*	81.9	103.5	97.8	96.1	77.7
July	*	*	*	82.6	104.8	93.9	97.4	*
Aug.	*	*	*	83.1	107.3	100.9	99.4	*
Sept.	*106*	*109*	*111*	83.1	107.8	104.8	99.9	78.6
Oct.	*	*	*	83.0	114.1	107.1	104.5	*
Nov.	*	*	*	81.5	109.8	109.4	101.3	*
Dec.	*108*	*113*	*109*	75.6†	96.3†	102.0	91.1	77.7
1939: Jan.	*	*	*	—	—	88.3	89.2†	*
Feb.	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	*
Persons covered Dec. 1937 or 1938	101,600		200,700	494,991†	611,852		781,799	222,571

Date	Sweden			Czecho-Slovakia	Union of South Africa			U.S.S.R.[4]		Yugoslavia
	I Stat. of establ.		II Stat. of establ.	Sickness insurance statistics	Statistics of establishments			Statistics of establishments		Sickness & accidents insurance statistics
	Mines, industries		Mines, ind., transp., comm.	Agr., industries, transp.[3], comm.	Industries	Mines, ind., transport[3]		Mines, ind.	Mines, ind., transp., com., etc.	Ind., transports[3], commerce, etc.
	Wage earners		Wage earners	Wage earners	Wage earners, salaried employees			Wage earners, salaried empl.		Wage earners salaried employees
	Number	Hours	Number	Number	Europeans		Total	Number		Number
1929	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	99.8	98.6	*	97.6	96	97.4	98.1	135.4	121.5	104.3
1931	91.3	85.8	*	92.3	92	93.5	93.8	183.4	157.9	100.7
1932	86.0	77.8	*	82.6	83	87.6	87.2	216.0	185.9	88.8
1933	85.0	78.4	*89.1*	75.4	89	90.3	91.2	195.5	178.3	86.1
1934	91.6	89.5	*97.4*	75.0	105	100.3	102.3	208.2	188.8	89.8
1935	96.9	96.2	*103.1*	76.6	114	109.7	114.1	211.9	200.2	93.3
1936	102.1	102.2	*108.7*	82.3	121	117.6	124.8	224.1†	208.2†	101.8
1937	109.1	109.8	*117.3*	90.9	127	125.2	131.6	—	—	112.4
1938	—	—	*117.4*	91.0[2,5]	—	—	—	—	—	—
1938: Feb.	*	*	*	82.1	128	128.7	135.9	*	*	107.8
March	*	*	*116.1*	86.1	127	128.9	138.0	*	*	113.0
April	*	*	*	91.5	124	128.1	138.5	*	*	116.6
May	*	*	*	95.9	124	128.4	138.8	*	*	122.7
June	*	*	*118.1*	96.9	123	128.5	139.1	*	*	125.6
July	*	*	*	98.0	123	128.6	138.6	*	*	123.8
Aug.	*	*	*	97.6	122	128.4	137.6	*	*	125.1
Sept.	*	*	*119.3*	68.0[2]	122	128.4	136.9	*	*	124.7
Oct.	*	*	*	52.0[2]	122	1: 8.8	136.5	*	*	122.0
Nov.	*	*	*	56.1[2]	121	128.8	135.7	*	*	120.4
Dec.	*	*	*116.1*	54.4[2]	—	—	—	*	*	—
1939: Jan.	*	*	*	50.0[2]	—	—	—	*	*	—
Feb.	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	*	*	—
Persons covered Dec. 1937 or 1938	372,195		250,322	1,363,341	58,246	173,165	682,438	19,225,000†	21,188,000†	673,943

[1] Except for the series in italics: base: year later than 1929. [2] New territory. [3] Average of 8 months.
[4] Employment in socialised and private establishments and those working under concession.

For notes relating to the various countries, see also *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXVIII, No. 5, Nov. 1938, pp. 700 and 701.

Sweden. — I: series covering about 40 per cent. of workers in mines and industries; II: series covering about 25 per cent. of the workers in the occupations covered.

Unemployment

The statistics of unemployment in the table below are intended to show two aspects of the fluctuations in unemployment.

(*a*) The *number* of persons seeking work or registered as unemployed in certain occupations. Fluctuations in this number are determined—like the fluctuations in the number of employed persons—by many factors; on the one hand, those connected with cyclical and seasonal fluctuations of economic activity; on the other hand, general population movements and changes in the social structure;

(*b*) The *percentage* unemployed—that is, the number unemployed in relation to the total number of employable persons in the occupations under consideration. This measures the "degree" of unemployment" and eliminates the effects of general population movements and changes in social structure.

These statistics generally relate only to wholly unemployed persons; the few series referring to partial unemployment offer only a very imperfect measure of that phenomenon.[1] Even within this limit, however, the figures available vary considerably as to completeness and reliability. Their validity depends chiefly on their scope, which in turn is determined by the degree of development and competence of the institutions providing the data, and on the definition of "unemployed" adopted by these institutions. Six main *types of statistics* may be distinguished:

(a) *Compulsory unemployment insurance statistics.* The scope of these statistics is laid down by the insurance legislation; an unemployed person is generally—as in the statistics mentioned under (*b*) and (*c*)—a person registered at the insurance institution in accordance with administrative regulations (usually with a view to the acquisition, in due course, of benefit). The percentage is obtained by comparing the number of unemployed with the number of insured persons. Subject to the observation that the legislation and administrative regulations governing the insurance scheme may be amended from time to time, these statistics may be regarded as generally the most complete and reliable.

(b) *Voluntary (public) unemployment insurance statistics.* With regard to these statistics it must also be borne in mind that as the insurance is voluntary its scope may change gradually in the course of time, particularly during periods of depression and as a result of changes in the conditions of insurance. Absolute numbers may there-

[1] Some information on partial unemployment is contained in the statistics of actual hours of work, particularly in the figures relating to the distribution of workers according to the number of hours worked.

fore be without great significance, and changes in the numbers of workers covered, if large, may influence the significance of percentages. Further, conditions for registration and receipt of benefit may differ, and this may influence the statistics.

(c) *Trade union fund statistics.* The remarks made under (*b*) apply with greater force to statistics of this type. The scope of these figures depends on the development of the trade union funds and the widely varying conditions governing the recording of unemployed workers and the payment of benefits to them. The statistics may thus be fairly satisfactory in some countries and incomplete and somewhat unreliable in others.

(d) *Trade union statistics.* These series are based on returns compiled by trade unions of the numbers of unemployed among their members, irrespective of whether they are in receipt of benefits or not, and give the percentage of the total trade union membership so recorded. Their scope varies with the extent of the trade union movement ; the definition of the term " unemployed " may also vary widely.

(e) *Employment exchange statistics.* These data are obtained from the number of applicants (or of applications) for employment registered at the exchanges. When registration at the employment exchanges is entirely voluntary, the scope of the figures obtained is determined partly by the manner in which the system of exchanges is organised, and partly by the extent to which workers are accustomed to register and the advantages which registration brings them. As these factors vary widely, the statistics are often unreliable. Where registration is one of the conditions for acquisition of the right to unemployment benefit, under a compulsory or a voluntary system, the figures are comparable in reliability with insurance figures. This applies also, in practically the same degree, to exchanges operating in connection with large unemployment relief schemes, as long as conditions for the granting of relief are not subjected to important changes. When the statistics are such that they can be compared with the corresponding number of employable workers obtained from some other source (particularly from social insurance statistics), the percentage of unemployment can be computed.

(f) *Estimates.* These statistics, compiled by official or industrial organisations, are generally based on one or more of the series discussed above, corrected, if necessary, by taking account of certain factors.

The *economic scope* of these different statistics is somewhat difficult to ascertain. In general, mining and industry are the most fully represented, transport and commerce often less fully, and agriculture still less. Most of the statistics are also limited, in the main, to wage earners, and refer to a less extent to salaried employees.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Date	Germany (excluding Austria)			Austria			Australia	
	Employment exchange statistics			Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns	
	Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered		Unemployed in receipt of benefit		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed	
		Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.		Number	Per cent.
1929	1,919,917[1]	1,891,956	9.3	164,477	12.3	192,062	47,359	11.1
1930	3,130,082	3,075,580	15.3	208,389	15.0	242,612	84,767	19.3
1931	4,618,537	4,519,704	23.3	253,368	20.3	300,223	117,866	27.4
1932	5,703,088	5,575,492	30.2	309,968	26.1	377,894	120,454	29.0
1933	5,083,140	4,804,428	26.3	328,844	29.0	405,740	104,035	25.1
1934	3,306,628	2,718,309[2]	14.9 [2]	287,527	26.3	370,210	86,865	20.5
1935	2,567,523[2]	2,151,039[2]	11.6 [2]	261,768	23.4	348,675	71,823	16.5
1936	1,889,626	1,592,655	8.3	259,185	22.9	349,663	53,992	12.2
1937	1,109,914	912,312	4.6	231,313	20.4	320,961	41,823	9.3
1938	585,311	429,461	2.0	174,048	15.3†	243,720[7]	40,526	8.7
1938: Feb.	1,125,796	946,334	4.8	300,294	26.3†	396,000	37,111	8.0
March	702,570	507,649	2.5	263,000	23.1†	364,680	*	*
April	605,614	422,530	2.1	280,137[4]	24.6†	403,643[5]	*	*
May	506,613	338,355	1.6	245,660	21.5†	350,728	39,824	8.6
June	448,848	292,240	1.4	190,310	16.7†	274,627	*	*
July	363,379	218,328	1.0	123,619	10.8†	151,026	*	*
Aug.	310,939	178,762	0.9	91,511	8.0†	113,655	43,092	9.2
Sept.	281,331	155,996	0.7	73,488	6.4†	99,865	*	*
Oct.	298,400	163,941	0.8	69,617	6.1†	106,543	*	*
Nov.	288,153	152,430[3]	0.7	72,051	6.3†	112,745	42,077	8.9
Dec.	576,812	455,656[3]	2.2	76,621	6.7†	150,058	*	*
1939: Jan.	433,899	301,897[3]	1.5†	—	—	156,174[7]	*	*
Feb.	—	196,800†[3]	0.9†	—	—	121,000 †	—	—
Base figure	*	20,740,000†		1,140,500†		*	471,581	

Date	Belgium		Canada			Chile
	Voluntary unempl. insurance stat.		Trade union returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed (daily average during the month)	Days of unemployment	Unemployed		Applicants for work registered	Applicants for work registered
		Per cent. [6]	Number	Per cent.		
1929	12,636[7]	1.9	11,488	5.7	14,996	*
1930	36,102[7]	5.2	22,873	11.1	33,008	*
1931	110,392[7]	14.3	33,625	16.8	69,719	29,345
1932	210,575[7]	23.3	38,777	22.0	75,140	107,295
1933	210,007[7]	20.4	33,488	22.3	81,809	71,805
1934	234,730[7]	23.2	28,320	18.2	88,888	30,055
1935	211,533	21.6	25,336	15.4	84,050	10,672
1936	154,531	16.3	23,500	13.2	90,133	6,474
1937	126,535	13.2	21,639	10.8	88,516	3,244
1938	174,003	—	29,649	13.1	105,236	—
1938: Feb.	196,006	19.9	30,282	13.7	93,077	3,085
March	168,985	17.3	28,141	12.8	112,561	3,418
April	158,932	16.5	28,910†	13.1	116,948	3,382
May	163,941	16.9	29,130	13.2	115,914	4,534
June	154,436	15.9	29,941	13.5	111,680	5,410
July	152,462	15.6	30,651	14.0	108,383	4,588
Aug.	149,779	15.0	25,088	11.6	102,581	4,866
Sept.	154,340	15.8	23,203	10.4	101,187	5,191
Oct.	163,771	16.0	29,160	12.3	107,749	5,416
Nov.	185,454	18.7	33,387	13.7	113,251	5,578
Dec.	240,860	—	40,307	16.2	88,639	—
1939: Jan.	—	—	39,910†	15.9	110,018	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered	972,780†		251,000†		*	*

[1] Average for 11 months. [2] Since March 1935, including the Saar Territory. [3] Since 31 July 1933, not including persons employed in labour camps. [4] Revised series (including additional persons now entitled to benefits and amounting in April to 111,000). [5] Unemployed registered. [6] Days of unemployment, as a percentage of the total possible working days of insured workers during the month. [7] Estimations. [8] Excluding unemployed registered in the Sudete territory (196,000, 218,074, 188,455, and 138,000, at the end of November, December, January, and February, respectively).

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT (*cont.*)

Date	Denmark			Danzig (Free City of)	Estonia	Finland	United States			
	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Estimates		Trade union returns	Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered	Unemployed registered	Unemployed registered	Percentage unemployed			Applicants for work registered
	Number	Per cent.					N.I.C.B. [2]	A.F.L. [3]	Weighted	
1929	42,817	15.5	44,581	12,905	3,172	3,877	1.0	3.9	8.2	*
1930	39,631	13.7	40,551	18,291	3,089	8,009	7.9	9.8	14.5	*
1931	53,019	17.9	59,430	24,898	3,542	11,495	16.4	17.7 [4]	19.1	*
1932	99,508	31.7	126,039	33,344	7,121	17,351	24.9	26.3 [4]	23.8	*
1933	97,478	28.8	121,115	31,408	8,284	17,139	25.1	27.1 [4]	24.3	*
1934	81,756	22.1	97,595	20,326	2,970	10,011	20.5	23.6 [4]	20.9	*
1935	76,195	19.7	92,406	17,983	1,779 [1]	7,163	18.9	20.8	18.5	7,449,841
1936	78,669	19.3	93,261	13,533	1,276	4,796	15.5	18.2	13.3	7,705,270
1937	95,103	21.9	107,124	8,009	1,160	3,763	13.2	15.8	10.5	5,154,730
1938	97,076	21.4	112,241	3,499	1,243	3,602	19.8†	20.7	15.3	7,404,176
1938: Feb.	124,228	27.7	145,021	8,580	1,798	4,544	21.0	21.1	16.6	6,745,702
March	99,076	22.1	119,659	4,722	1,805	3,635	21.1	21.3	17.2	6,778,368
April	90,983	20.3	107,792	3,157	1,302	3,462	21.0	21.0	16.7	7,253,948
May	78,541	17.5	93,422	2,022	872	2,963	21.1	21.6	16.4	7,520,549
June	75,227	16.7	86,616	1,544	684	2,414	20.3	21.6	16.3	7,830,940
July	76,743	16.9	87,950	1,139	518	2,186	20.2	21.3	15.7	8,087,891
Aug.	76,659	16.9	86,566	1,048	522	2,747	19.6	20.9	14.6	8,121,410
Sept.	76,739	16.8	89,231	1,200	607	3,192	18.3	19.7	14.0	7,968,668
Oct.	86,188	18.8	99,919	1,757	999	4,041	18.2	19.6	13.4	7,743,043
Nov.	103,701	22.7	119,360	1,985	1,719	5,172	18.5	19.9 [r]	13.2	7,529,384
Dec.	146,533	31.6	161,263	4,612	1,831	4,294	18.3†	19.4	13.0	7,215,961
1939: Jan.	139,225 [r]	29.9 [r]	155,814	2,602	2,252	5,006	19.6†	21.7†	13.3	7,308,005
Feb.	124,539†	26.8†	141,941	1,812	1,996	4,412	—	—	12.7†	—
Base figure	467,513†		*	*	*	*	54,312,000†	53,111,332†	1,017,000	*

Date	France		Great Britain and Northern Ireland			Great Britain	
	Public relief fund statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics (16-64 years)			Employment exchange statistics	
			Wholly unempl. (incl. casuals)	Un. owing to temporary stoppages	Total	Applicants for work registered	
	Unemployed in receipt of relief	Applications for work	Percentages			Wholly unemp'. (incl. casuals)	Unempl. owing to temporary stoppages
1929	928	10,052	8.2	2.2	10.4	950,593	264,911
1930	2,514	13,859	11.8	4.3	16.1	1,399,492	517,823
1931	56,112	75,215	16.7	4.6	21.3	2,049,710	579,851
1932	273,412 [5]	308,096	17.6	4.5	22.1	2,178,311	566,478
1933	276,033	307,844	16.4	3.5	19.9	2,070,046	450,570
1934	345,033	376,320	13.9	2.8	16.7	1,795,437	363,794
1935	426,931	465,875	13.1	2.4	15.5	1,730,194	306,228
1936	431,897	475,272	11.2	1.9	13.1	1,507,979	246,996
1937	350,333	379,095	9.3	1.5	10.5 [6]	1,283,523	200,876
1938	375,742	408,024	10.2	2.7	12.6	1,418,725	371,956
1938: Feb.	412,386	444,376	10.6	2.5	12.8	1,475,337	335,084
March	401,056	433,817	10.3	2.4	12.4	1,417,734	331,247
April	393,054	424,636	10.1	2.6	12.4	1,389,486	358,278
May	380,826	411,835	9.9	2.9	12.5	1,381,276	397,529
June	362,899	390,868	9.7	3.5	12.8	1,334,156	468,756
July	344,517	370,688	9.5	3.4	12.5	1,305,343	467,773
Aug.	338,383	366,331	9.5	3.1	12.2	1,320,218	439,024
Sept.	338,409	368,187	9.8	3.0	12.4	1,386,124	412,494
Oct.	361,724	401,936	10.5	2.2	12.3	1,473,280	307,947
Nov.	367,106	400,956	10.8	2.2	12.7	1,522,607	305,496
Dec.	404,730	444,327	10.8	2.1	12.7	1,536,664	294,708
1939: Jan.	415,987	460,816	11.5 [6]	2.6 [6]	14.1	1,659,999	379 027
Feb.	414,756	457,760	11.2	2.0	13.2	1,605,038	291,680
Persons covered	*	*	14,839,500			*	

[1] Since January 1935 applicants for work registered. [2] National Industrial Conference Board. [3] American Federation of Labor. [4] Figures overestimated, but by no more than 500,000 from total unemployment. [5] From July 1932 onwards, including unemployed in receipt of relief from the welfare offices. [6] Including Agriculture.

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT (*cont.*)

Date	Hungary	Netherlands Indies	Ireland		Japan [3]		Latvia
	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Official estimates		Employment exchange statistics
			Applicants for work registered		Unemployed		
	Applications for work registered	Applicants for work registered	With claims to unempl. benefit	Total	Number	Per cent.	Applications for work registered
1929	15,173	*	14,679	20,702	*	*	5,617
1930	43,592[1]	*	16,378	22,398	369,408	5.3	4,851
1931	52,305	6,964	17,852	25,230	422,755	6.1	8,709
1932	66,235	10,922	20,217	62,817[2]	485,681	6.8	14,587
1933	60,595	14,576	19,897	72,255	408,710	5.6	8,156
1934	52,157	15,784	20,558	103,671	372,941	5.0	4,972
1935	52,048	17,418	18,410	119,498	356,044	4.6	4,825
1936	52,114	19,700	16,318	99,834	338,365	4.3	3,851
1937	48,359	19,281	19,418	82,425	295,443	3.7	3,014
1938	47,426	—	20,571[r]	88,714	—	—	2,164
1938: Feb.	50,442	17,098	23,890	104,829	265,845	3.3	4,071
March	50,850	16,861	22,910	102,515	254,906	3.1	3,622
April	47,423	16,363	20,433	100,076	243,093	3.0	2,611
May	46,445	15,961	19,217	97,571	227,992	2.9	1,313
June	45,415	15,822	19,614	71,959	230,262	2.9	1,148
July	45,454	16,386	17,801	68,320	—	—	887
Aug.	47,659	16,732	18,580	70,552	—	—	604
Sept.	47,413	16,409	18,167	70,411	—	—	663
Oct.	45,328	16,467	20,209	91,280	—	—	1,060
Nov.	43,631	16,528	20,324	93,223	—	—	2,132
Dec.	49,216	—	20,355	88,380	—	—	3,737
1939: Jan.	—	—	25,431	105,012	—	—	4,053
Feb.	—	—	23,224	105,457	—	—	—
Base figure	*	*	*		7,978,614		*

Date	Lithuania [3]	Mexico	Norway			New Zealand	Portugal
	Employment exchange statistics	Official estimates	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics
			Unemployed			Unemployed (males)	
	Unemployed registered	Number unemployed	Number	Per cent.	Unemployed [4]	Registered [5]	Unemployed registered
1929	*	*	5,902	15.4	19,089	2,895	*
1930	*	75,695[6]	7,175	16.6	19,353	5,318	*
1931	*	257,979	*	22.3	27,479	41,431	*
1932	*	339,378	14,790	30.8	32,705	51,549	33,352
1933	*	275,774	16,588	33.4	35,591	46,944[7]	25,255
1934	*	234,538	15,963	30.7	35,121	39,235	34,711
1935	3,780	191,371	14,783	25.3	36,103	38,234	42,315
1936	3,533	186,904	13,267	18.8	32,643	36,890	43,057
1937	3,112	174,351	16,532	20.0	28,520	*	40,240
1938	2,811	—	19,230[r]	22.0	28,923	*	—
1938: Feb.	4,024	215,720	24,321	28.2	35,311	7,241 [8]	—
March	2,746	203,330	22,916	26.5	34,104	6,695	—
April	2,630	202,553	21,256	24.5	29,850	7,215	—
May	2,307	195,580	17,853	20.5	25,693	8,314	—
June	1,860	184,970	16,197	18.5	22,938	8,721	—
July	1,799	176,209	14,843	16·9	20,144	3,929	—
Aug.	1,511	204,145[r]	14,504	16.4	21,068	2,154	—
Sept.	1,546[r]	211,437†	15,683	17.7	26,105	1,575	—
Oct.	1,987	—	16,490	18.5	30,085	1,245	—
Nov.	3,272	—	18,519	20.7	33,861	1,026	—
Dec.	5,270	—	23,426[r]	26.2	34,873	917	—
1939: Jan.	—	—	—	—	34,122	1,036	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	34,713	—	—
Persons covered	*	*	89,227		*	*	*

[1] Since January 1930, including non-fee-charging private employment agencies. [2] Extended series. [3] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. [4] Figure for the month of May. [5] The figures relate to the 15th of the month. [6] For the period 1927-1932, numbers of unemployed males remaining on registers of Government Labour Bureaux. [7] Monthly figures do not always relate to the end of each month. [8] Excluding persons totally unfit for employment for health or other reasons (approximately 8,000 at the end of 1937).

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT (*concluded*)

Date	Netherlands				Poland		Sweden		
	Voluntary unemployment insurance statistics [1]			Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics		Trade union returns		Statistics of local unemployment committees
	Unemployed		Days of unemployment	Wholly unemployed registered	Applications for work registered		Unemployed		Applicants for relief registered
	Number	Per cent.	Per cent. [2]		Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	
1929	24,300	7.1	5.9	*	129,450	4.9	32,621	10.7	10,212
1930	37,800	9.7	7.8	*	226,659	8.8	42,016	12.2	13,723
1931	82,800	18.1	14.8	138,231	299,502	12.6	64,815	17.2	46,540
1932	153,500	29.5	25.3	271,092	255,582	11.8	90,677	22.8	113,907
1933	163,000	31.0	26.9	322,951	249,660	11.9	97,316	23.7	164,054
1934	160,400	32.1	28.0	332,772	342,166	16.3	84,685	18.9	114,802
1935	173,700	36.3	31.7	384,691	381,935	16.7 [3]	81,385	16.1	61,581
1936	169,400	36.3	32.7	414,512	367,327	15.6	71,884	13.6	35,601
1937	137,700	29.2	26.9	368,909	375,088	14.6	67,351	11.6	18,213
1938	135,571 †	27.6†	25.0	353,646	347,509	12.6†	74,254†	11.8†	14,927
1938: Feb.	156,575	31.0	26.8	420,790	546,822	20.4	92,282	14.7	21,766
March	142,578	29.2	24.8	372,433	489,985	18.0	86,783	13.9	19,184
April	133,106	27.0	23.9	354,674	389,191	14.4	73,966	11.9	15,791
May	128,016	26.0	22.9	332,049	300,951	11.0	58,452	9.3	12,463
June	122,873	24.9	22.3	311,032	259,016	9.3	59,620	9.5	10,421
July	122,013	24.6	21.8	302,312	226,712	8.2	50,905	8.1	8,481
Aug.	118,894	23.9	21.8	301,759	210,625	7.5	52,183	8.2	8,346
Sept.	118,383	23.8	21.9	301,730	212,283	7.5	53,506	8.4	9,154
Oct.	119,397	26.6	23.3	318 674	232,364	8.1	63,830	10.0	12,349
Nov.	126,613 [r]	25.3 [r]	28.6	355,380	296,600	10.3†	79,743 [r]	12.4 [r]	17,350
Dec.	172,111†	34.8†	28.1 †	433,646	456,286	15.9†	122,343†	19.1†	22,099
1939: Jan.	144,373†	30.8†	25.9 †	405,927	541,482	18.9†	101,179†	15.0†	27,547
* Feb.	132,308†	26.5†	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Base figure	500,512†			*	2,869,600†		675,603†		219† [4]

Date	Rumania [5]	Switzerland			Czecho-Slovakia			Yugoslavia
	Employm. exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment insurance statistics	Trade union fund returns		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics
	Unemployed registered	Percentage unemployed		Applications for work registered	Unemployed in receipt of benefit		Applicants for work registered	Unemployed registered
		Wholly	Partially		Number	Per cent.		
1929	7,288	1.8	1.7	8,131	23,763	2.2	41,630	8,370
1930	25,335	3.4	7.2	12,881	51,371	4.5	105,442	8,198
1931	35,737	5.9	12.1	24,208	102,179	8.3	291,332	9,930
1932	38,890	9.1 [6]	12.2 [6]	54,366	184,555	13.5	554,049	15,997
1933	29,063	10.8	8.5	67,867	247,613	16.9	738,267	15,647
1934	17,253	9.8	6.1	65,440	245,953	17.4	676,994	16,752
1935	13,852	11.8	5.9	82,468	235,623	15.9	686,269	19,436
1936	13,549	13.2	5.3	93,009	208,096	13.1	622,687	21,650
1937	10,851	10.0	2.5	71,130	151,167	8.8	408,949	22,517
1938	—	8.6	4.5	65,583	—	—	335,518 [7]	44,234
1938: Feb.	11,887	13.6	4.4	93,103	220,138	12.3	511,288	42,145
March	10,867	9.3	4.8	66,631	204,132	11.4	434,506	36,413
April	7,957	7.5	4.6	60,370	173,487	9.7	360,849	29,184
May	5,618	6.8	4.7	56,108	145,692	8.4	284,785	18,023
June	5,348	6.1	4.8	48,658	121,827	6.8	224,170	14,828
July	3,836	5.8	4.6	49,703	107,596	6.0	184,118	13,049
Aug.	4,807	6.0	4.4	49,606	96,205	5.4†	165.423	10.973
Sept.	5,493	6.0	4.4	49,610	—	—	61,697 [8]	10,926
Oct.	5,290	6.8	4.1	57,405	—	—	77,331 [8]	12,103
Nov.	5,382	8.2	4.2	68,827	—	—	103,685 [8]	14,739
Dec.	—	13.1	4.8	91,257	—	—	148,152 [8]	23,590
1939: Jan.	—	13.3	4.3	85,377	—	—	180,071 [8]	32,831
Feb.	—	—	—	73,170	—	—	176,092 †[9]	—
Persons covered	*	511,982		*	1,793,270†		*	*

[1] Excluding agriculture. Weekly averages. [2] Days of unemployment, as a percentage of the total possible working days of insured workers during the month. [3] Since 1935, percentage based on the number of persons covered by compulsory social insurance schemes. [4] Number of relief funds. [5] The figures relate to the 1st of the following month. [6] Up to 1931 quarterly statistics; afterwards monthly statistics. [7] Average of 8 months. [8] New territory.

Actual Hours of Work

The statistics of actual hours of work are intended to show, firstly, the average number of hours worked per worker (per day, week, fortnight, or month) and, secondly, the distribution of workers according to the number of hours worked in a specified period. The statistics available all belong to the type known as *statistics of establishments*. They are based on reports received from selected undertakings, the samples varying in size from country to country and hence varying in reliability, and being sometimes more and sometimes less representative of the industries in question.

Statistics of the average number of hours worked per worker are generally obtained by dividing the total number of man-hours worked in the establishments covered during a certain period by the total number of man-days worked during this period (in the case of data expressed in hours per day), or by dividing the total number of man-hours worked during a week, fortnight, or month, by the total number of workers on the payroll during the same period (in the case of data expressed in terms of these time units). Data showing the distribution of workers according to the number of hours worked during a specified period are in some cases based upon a classification of workers according to the hours worked by each, and in others upon estimates of the time during which the establishments or their branches, shops, or groups of workers, have been at work. In the latter case, the average duration per worker can be computed on the basis of this approximate distribution. The ranges adopted vary from country to country, but the International Labour Office has reclassified the figures so as to give three or four groups as uniform as possible.

It should be noted that the different periods in terms of which the duration of work is expressed (day, week, etc.) for the purposes both of average hours and of distribution by hours worked cannot be transformed into a uniform period owing to such circumstances as the Saturday half-holiday, the varying number of days in different months, and fluctuations in the labour turnover, etc.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK

Date	Germany [1]	Austria			Estonia			
	Industries	Mines, industries			Industries, etc.			
	Statistics of establishments	Statistics of establishments			Statistics of establishments			
	Hours of work per day	% of workers working weekly [2]: Under 48 h.	48 h.	Over 48 h.	Hours of work per day [3]	% of male workers working daily [4]: Up to 7 h.	7.1-8.0 h.	Over 8 h.
1929	7.67	3.1	89.9	7.0	8.18	1.9	51.8	46.3
1930	7.37	3.6	88.8	7.6	8.16	1.7	50.1	48.2
1931	7.08	19.2	75.7	5.1	8.05	2.5	59.2	38.3
1932	6.91	16.7	78.8	4.5	7.86	2.1	81.3	16.6
1933	7.16	20.8	75.1	4.1	7.88	*	*	*
1934	7.43	20.8	72.3	6.9	7.91	1.9	72.4	25.7
1935	7.41	13.5	79.3	7.2	7.97	1.8	69.5	28.7
1936	7.59	15.2	77.8	7.0	8.00	1.9	62.8	35.3
1937	7.68	—	—	—	8.03	1.8	55.5	42.7
1938	7.75	—	—	—	8.07†	—	—	—
1938 Feb.	7.70	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
March	7.73	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
April	7.85	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
May	7.86	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
June	7.65	—	—	—	8.07	*	*	*
July	7.46	—	—	—	*	—	—	—
Aug.	7.51	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Sept.	7.82	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Oct.	7.85	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Nov.	8.05	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Dec.	7.89	—	—	—	8.07†	*	*	*
1939 Jan.	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Feb.	—	—	—	—	*	*	*	*
Persons covered	*	*			49,837†	30,974		

Date	United States		Finland				France				
	Industries		Industries				Mines, industries, transp., commerce				
	Statistics of establishments		Statistics of establishments				Statistics of establishments [7]				
	B.L.S. [5]	N.I.C.B. [6]	Hours of work per fortnight	% of workers working fortnightly: Under 80 h.	80.0 to 95.9 h.	96 h. and more	% of workers working weekly: Under 40 h.	40 h.	Over 40 h. and under 48 h.	48 h. and over	Weekly hours of work
	Hours of work per week										
1929	*	43.3	93.0	7.5	58.9	33.6	*	*	*	*	*
1930	*	43.9	90.8	3.3	62.0	34.7	0.4	0.7	2.7	96.2	48†
1931	*	40.4	88.5	25.2	45.4	29.4	7.4	6.9	18.0	67.7	*
1932	37.9	34.8	90.9	8.8	66.7	24.5	22.1	10.1	17.6	50.2	*
1933	37.9	36.4	92.8	3.7	64.8	31.5	12.6	8.1	17.5	61.8	*
1934	34.7	34.7	94.0	0.8	68.1	31.1	13.8	8.5	20.9	56.8	44.6
1935	36.6	37.2	93.4	*	*	*	14.1	8.6	21.7	55.6	44.5
1936	39.1	39.8	93.2	*	*	*	6.7	6.1	18.9	68.3	45.8
1937	38.5	39.2	95.1	*	*	*	6.5	83.5	1.1	8.9	40.4
1938	35.3	34.4	—	*	*	*	18.3	77.7	—	—	39.0
1938 Feb.	34.3	33.4	*	*	*	*	19.1	80.8	0.1	0	38.7
March	34.5	33.3	*	*	*	*	20.4	79.5	0.1	0	38.7
April	34.2	32.9	93.0[7]	*	*	*	20.2	79.7	0.1	0	38.7
May	34.4	32.7	*	*	*	*	20.3	79.6	0.1	0	38.7
June	34.4	33.1	*	*	*	*	19.0	80.9	0.1	0	38.8
July	34.9	33.8	91.0	*	*	*	19.7	75.3	4.9	0.1	38.9
Aug.	36.3	35.2	*	*	*	*	18.3	76.3	5.3	0.1	39.0
Sept.	36.9	36.2	*	*	*	*	18.4	71.1	10.5	0	39.2
Oct.	37.4	36.7	—	*	*	*	16.6	71.7	11.7		39.4
Nov.	36.5	36.9	*	*	*	*	14.8	69.7	15.5		39.6
Dec.	36.5†	36.6	*	*	*	*	13.0	68.8	18.2		40.0
1939 Jan.	—	—	—	*	*	*	11.1	65.4	23.5		40.4
Feb.	—	—	*	*	*	*	—	—	—		—
Persons covered	*	*	*	*			2,377,486				

[1] Excluding Austria. [2] 1929-1931 : figures for January ; 1932 and 1933 : averages of the figures for January and July ; 1934 to 1936 : averages for the 12 months of the year ; the monthly figures relate to the first week of the month. [3] Annual figures : averages of two half-yearly figures ; monthly figures : averages for the half-year ending with the month in question. [4] The figures relate to the month of July of each year. [5] Bureau of Labor Statistics. [6] National Industrial Conference Board ; the monthly figures relate to the first week of the month. [7] The monthly figures relate to the first of the following month (data collected through the labour inspectors).

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF ACTUAL HOURS OF WORK (*concluded*)

Date	Hungary	Italy					Japan	
	Industries, etc.	Industries				Ind., etc.	Industries	
	Statistics of establishments	Statistics of establishments					Statistics of establishments	
	Hours of work per day per worker	M. C. [1]				C. F. I. [2]	Imperial Cabinet	Bank of Japan
		% of workers working weekly:				Hours of work per month	Hours of work per day	
		Under 40 h.	40.0 to 44.9 h.	45 to 48 h.	Over 48 h.			
		a		*b*				
1929	8.97	8.9		75.5	15.6	182	9.27	*
1930	8.82	20.8		66.7	12.5	175	9.13	*
1931	8.64	24.2		64.6	11.2	170	9.08	*
1932	8.53	28.4		63.6	8.0	168	9.10	9.63
1933	8.59	20.8		70.7	8.5	174	9.22	9.95
1934	8.78	30.5		61.9	7.6	172	9.25	9.83
1935	8.83	28.3 [4]	39.6 [4]	21.7 [4]	10.4 [4]	159	9.28	9.85
1936	8.64 [5]	27.5	44.0	18.7	9.8	157	9.28	9.85
1937	8.64	16.5	47.4	26.7	9.4	163	9.32	9,91
1938	—	21.7	52.2	18.8	7.3	—	—	—
1938 Feb.	*	16.7	51.3	23.8	8.2	157	9.32	9.92
March	*	19.1	51.0	21.9	8.0	167	9.37	9.97
April	*	21.4	50.7	20.2	7.7	159	9.35	9.98
May	*	24.0	50.7	18.4	6.9	156	9.38	9.97
June	*	25.7	50.7	16.6	7.0	157	9.35	9.98
July	*	23.3	52.8	16.6	7.3	161	9.33	9.92
Aug.	*	25.3	52.0	16.1	6.6	151	9.32	9.90
Sept.	*	22.2	53.9	16.6	7.3	164	9.32	9.90
Oct.	*	22.3	53.7	17.1	6.9	160†	—	9.93
Nov.	*	20.6	54.5	17.8	7.1	—	—	9.97
Dec.	*	23.4	53.8	16.5	6.3	—	—	—
1939 Jan.	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Feb.	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered	*	1,155,932				1,543,697	*	1,608,297

Date	Latvia			Norway	Netherlands (Amsterdam)	Poland	Sweden				
	Industries, etc.			Industries	Industries, etc.	Industries	Mines and industries				
	Statistics of establishments			Statistics of establishments	Statistics of establishments	Statistics of establishments	Statistics of establishments				
	% of workers working weekly:			Hours of work per week	Hours of work per week	Hours of work per week per worker [6]	Hours of work per week per worker [6]	% of workers working weekly [6]:			
	Under 46 h.	46 h.	Over 46 h.					Up to 40 h.	41 to 47 h.	48 h.	Over 48 h.
1929	*	*	*	*	*	44.8	*	*	*	*	*
1930	*	*	*	*	*	43.9	*	*	*	*	*
1931	*	*	*	*	*	43.3	*	*	*	*	*
1932	24.9 [3]	73.0 [3]	2.1 [3]	*	*	41.4	*	*	*	*	*
1933	13.6	84.6	1.8	*	*	41.5	46.0	8.5	32.7	51.3	7.5
1934	11.3	80.4	8.3	*	*	42.2	47.0	8.0	29.1	42.5	20.4
1935	17.6	62.0	20.4	*	46.6	42.6	47.4	6.1	35.4	37.1	21.4
1936	16.1	63.8	20.1	45.5	46.7 [7]	42.7	47.6	4.6	35.8	39.6	20.0
1937	13.6	62.9	23.5	44.9	47.1 [7]	43.3	47.2	4.6	41.9	36.5	17.0
1938	11.0	64.7	24.3	44.1	—	43.7	46.8	8.4	46.1	36.7	8.8
1938 Feb.	12.3	66.5	21.2	*	*	44.0	*	*	*	*	*
March	10.6	65.1	24.3	44.3	*	44.1	*	*	*	*	*
April	12.5	63.8	23.7	*	*	43.9	*	*	*	*	*
May	10.3	64.6	25.1	*	*	43.8	*	*	*	*	*
June	11.7	62.9	25.4	43.4	—	43.7	*	*	*	*	*
July	12.0	64.0	24.0	*	*	43.7	46.8	8.4	46.1	36.7	8.8
Aug.	10.0	66.8	23.2	*	*	43.8	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	11.1	63.0	25.9	44.0	*	43.9	*	*	*	*	*
Oct.	9.4	64.8	25.8	*	*	43.1	*	*	*	*	*
Nov.	8.6	64.4	27.0	*	*	43.6	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	11.0	65.0	24.0	44.6	*	43.5	45.7	70.0		14.7	15.3
1939 Jan.	12.0	65.0	23.0	*	*	43.2	*	*	*	*	*
Feb.	—	—	—	*	*	—	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered	39,430			101,600†	18,727	547,154	382,904				

[1] Ministry of Corporations. Before May 1935, *a* = under 48 hours, *b* = 48 hours. The monthly figures relate to the last week of the month. [2] Fascist Confederation of Employers. [3] Average for the months February to December. [4] Average for the months May to December. [5] Monthly averages of weeks without holidays. [6] Figures for November. For 1938, figures for July. Average for the months July to December.

Wages

The statistics of average wages given below are intended to show not only the nominal value of wages per worker and their fluctuations, but also the fluctuations in real value (account being taken of changes in the purchasing power of money).

The index numbers which appear in the middle and lower sections of the tables have mostly been calculated by the Office. Those of money wages are either directly computed from the absolute amounts given in the upper part of the tables or obtained by converting published index numbers to the common base. The index numbers of " real " wages (showing the purchasing power of wages) are obtained by applying the cost-of-living index numbers (given in the following table) to the index numbers of money wages. On account of the differences in the methods of calculating cost-of-living indexes and the consequent variation in their reliability and sensitivity, the index numbers of real wages must be regarded as less exact than those of money wages. It should be noted also that too great importance should not be attached to slight fluctuations which they may undergo as a result of seasonal movements of prices reflected in the cost-of-living indexes. In some cases the cost-of-living index numbers relate to a single town while the statistics of money wages cover the whole country or certain areas (as in the case of mines); in such cases the index numbers of real wages are given in brackets.

The wage statistics given in the table are of three main *types*:

(a) *Statistics of rates* based on the conditions laid down in collective agreements or decisions of arbitration courts or other authorities, or fixed unilaterally by the employers, or merely on the wages recognised by custom. As a rule these standards apply only to adult time workers and normal hours of work; the degree in which they are representative of wages paid to all workers in the occupation in question is limited, and varies from one country to another. In countries in which the collective regulation of wages is widespread, the data may be considered representative of actual wages. In some countries the rates are described as " minimum " rates, but this expression cannot always be taken in its strict sense. The general averages are usually weighted according to the numerical importance of the occupations covered (and in some cases according to the region concerned) at a specified date.

(b) *Statistics of earnings* are usually based upon the payrolls of a number of representative establishments [1]; they express the average

[1] These statistics correspond to what are termed *statistics of establishments* in the other tables.

wages per worker actually paid (including bonuses, allowances, etc.) to all time and piece workers in the establishments covered for hours actually worked. As the number of establishments covered by the statistics is not usually complete and may include an undue proportion of those which offer more favourable conditions of remuneration, the averages obtained may not be always fully representative of the wage level of the whole body of workers in the occupations in question. Average earnings per hour or day are generally obtained by dividing the total wages paid during a given period by the number of man-hours or man-days worked during that period, and earnings per week by dividing the total wages paid in a given week by the number of workers employed during that week. Fluctuations in average earnings are therefore due not only to changes in rates of remuneration (indicated in the statistics of rates) but also to changes in the structure of the samples upon which they are based. In some countries, the general averages are weighted according to the numerical importance of the various occupations at a specified date, in order to eliminate, to some extent, the influence of structural changes. Sometimes also the chain method has been used in order to eliminate the effect of variations in the number of establishments covered.

(c) *Statistics of insured wages* are compiled from social insurance statistics, either by dividing the total amount of insured wages by the number of days worked, or from the numbers of persons insured whose wages fall within certain groups, from which an average wage can be computed. These statistics usually give lower averages than the statistics of rates or earnings, because existing insurance schemes generally set an upper limit above which the wage is not taken into consideration, and also because the total number of insured persons includes certain classes of lower-paid workers which are often neglected in other statistics.

As regards the *categories of workers* covered, it should be noted that, although certain insurance statistics cover salaried employees at least to some extent, the statistics of rates and earnings generally refer only to wage earners.

If, for the reasons mentioned above, the money wages shown in these three types of statistics are not easily comparable, fluctuations in the index numbers are more so, especially as regards hourly wages, which always refer to a fixed time unit. As regards daily, weekly and monthly wages, it must be remembered that the statistics of earnings and of insured wages are based on actual hours of work, which may vary considerably as a result of overtime or short time while the normal hours of work on which statistics of rates are based remain unchanged ; wage series expressed in these time units may thus show quite different fluctuations according to the type of statistics to which they belong.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES

Date	Germany						Austria
	Mines*, industries, transport *			Mines, industries		Agric., ind., transp., com.	Mines
	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)						Men and women (sk. and unsk.)
	Hourly rates	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Monthly earnings	Insured weekly wages	Earnings per shift
Money wages							
	RM.	RM.				RM.	Sch.
1929	*	*	*	*	*	31.19	9.46
1930	*	*	*	*	*	30.57	9.80
1931	*	*	*	*	*	27.73	9.61
1932	*	*	*	*	*	22.88	9.52
1933	*	*	*	*	*	21.88	9.18
1934	*	*	*	*	*	22.83	8.90
1935	*	*	*	*	*	24.04	8.61
1936	*	*	*	*	*	25.25	8.59
1937	*	*	*	*	*	26.50	—
1938	0.68	*	*	*	*	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	0.78	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]							
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	*	**100**	**100**
1930	102	97	92	*	*	98	104
1931	97	90	81	*	*	89	102
1932	82	75	67	*	*	73	101
1933	79	73	68	*98*	*96*	70	97
1934	79	75	73	**100**	**100**	73	94
1935	79	76	75	*103*	*105*	77	91
1936	79	77	78	*105*	*109*	81	91
1937	79	79	81	—	—	85	—
1938	80	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	79	80	82	—	—	*	*
1938 : March	80	80	82	—	—	*	*
June	80	81	82	—	—	*	*
Sept.	80	—	—	—	—	*	*
Dec.	80	—	—	—	—	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]							
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	*	**100**	**(100)**
1930	106	101	96	*	*	102	(104)
1931	109	102	92	*	*	101	(106)
1932	104	96	85	*	*	94	(103)
1933	104	95	89	*99*	*97*	92	(103)
1934	101	95	93	**100**	**100**	93	(99)
1935	99	95	94	*101*	*103*	96	(96)
1936	98	96	97	*102*	*106*	100	(96)
1937	98	97	99	—	—	105	—
1938	98	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	98	98	102	—	—	*	*
1938 : March	98	98	101	—	—	*	*
June	97	99	101	—	—	*	*
Sept.	98	—	—	—	—	*	*
Dec.	98	—	—	—	—	*	*
Persons covered 1937	*	—		—		15,416,800	13,396 [3]

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.

[2] Averages for the months September to December.

[3] Figure for 1936.

Germany. Annual and monthly figures : averages.
Austria. Annual figures : averages.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Australia				Belgium		
	Mines °, industries, transport °, etc.				Mines, industries, transport		
	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women		General average
					Skilled	Unsk.	
	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Hourly earnings		
Money wages							
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.			
1929	2 3	102 2¾	1 2½	53 11¾	*	*	*
1930	2 2½	100 10	1 2½	53 11	*	*	*
1931	2 0	91 10½	1 1	48 10¾	*	*	*
1932	1 10¾	86 1¾	1 0¼	45 4¾	*	*	*
1933	1 10	83 1½	0 11¾	43 9	*	*	*
1934	1 10	83 7¼	0 11¾	44 3	*	*	*
1935	1 10½	84 8¼	1 0	44 11	*	*	*
1936	1 11	86 1½	1 0¼	45 9½	*	*	*
1937	2 0	89 9½	1 1	48 0	*	*	*
1938	—	—	—	—	*	*	*
1937 : Dec.	2 0¾	92 11¼	1 1½	49 8¼	*	*	*
1938 : March	2 1	93 8	1 1½	50 1	*	*	*
June	2 1¼	94 1	1 1½	50 3	*	*	*
Sept.	—	92 5	—	50 7	*	*	*
Dec.	—	—	—	—	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)							
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	98	99	99	100	106	107	108
1931	89	90	90	91	99	100	101
1932	84	84	84	84	90	91	92
1933	81	81	81	81	88	88	90
1934	82	82	82	82	84	84	86
1935	83	83	83	83	81	82	82
1936	85	84	85	85	87	89	88
1937	89	88	90	89	98	101	99
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	92	91	93	92	102	104	102
1938 : March	93	92	93	93	102	105	104
June	94	92	93	93	103	105	104
Sept.	—	91	—	94	103r	107	105
Dec.	—	—	—	—	105†	106†	107†
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)							
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	103	104	105	105	102	103	104
1931	105	106	106	107	106	108	109
1932	104	104	104	104	108	108	111
1933	104	104	104	103	106	106	109
1934	103	103	103	103	106	106	108
1935	102	102	102	103	101	102	103
1936	103	102	103	103	103	104	104
1937	105	103	106	105	107	110	108
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	107	106	109	107	106	109	107
1938 : March	108	107	109	108	109	112	111
June	108	106	108	107	110	111	111
Sept.	—	104	—	107	110r	114	112
Dec.	—	—	—	—	111†	113†	112†
Persons covered 1937	*		*		*	*	*

Australia. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : last day of the month.
Belgium : Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : up to 1936 ; averages for January, April, July, and October ; from 1937 : averages for the month in question.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Bulgaria			Canada					China (Shanghai)
	Certain industries			Mines	Industries		Transport	Mines, industries, transport[1]	Industries
	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Women (skilled and unsk.)	General average	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Men and women (chiefly skilled)	Men (unskill.)	Men (skilled and unsk.)	General average	Men and women
	Hourly earnings			Hourly rates					Hourly rates
Money wages									
	Leva	Leva	Leva						Sh. $
1929	10.01	5.98	7.81	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	9.76	6.16	7.33	*	*	*	*	*	0.059
1931	9.25	5.58	7.12	*	*	*	*	*	0.057
1932	7.75	4.90	6.20	*	*	*	*	*	0.057
1933	7.76	4.69	6.53	*	*	*	*	*	0.058
1934	7.29	4.59	6.09	*	*	*	*	*	0.056
1935	7.04	5.13	6.11	*	*	*	*	*	0.053
1936	7.09	5.22	6.03	*	*	*	*	*	0.055
1937	7.78	5.88	6.61	*	*	*	*	*	—
1938	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	8.04	6.05	6.81	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)[2]									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	*
1930	98	103	94	100	100	100	100	101	100
1931	92	93	91	100	98	98	98	96	*97*
1932	77	82	79	97	91	92	90	91	*97*
1933	78	78	84	96	87	90	88	86	*98*
1934	73	77	78	96	89	91	85	87	*95*
1935	70	86	78	98	91	93	90	89	*90*
1936	71	87	77	98	93	96	90	91	*93*
1937	78	98	85	99	101	104	96	98	—
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	80	101	87	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)[2]									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	*
1930	107	113	103	101	101	101	101	101	100
1931	116	117	114	112	109	109	109	108	*93*
1932	105	112	108	119	112	114	111	111	*99*
1933	114	115	123	124	112	115	113	111	*112*
1934	114	121	122	123	113	116	108	111	*109*
1935	118	144	131	124	115	118	114	113	*103*
1936	124	153	135	121	115	118	111	113	*100*
1937	134	169	146	119	121	125	115	118	—
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	134	169	146	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered 1937	11,584	20,575	32,159	*					60,000[3]

[1] Including various industries not included in the columns under the heading " Industries ".
[2] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.
[3] Figure for 1936.

Bulgaria. Annual figures : up to 1933, averages of the figures for June and December ; from 1924 onwards, averages of the figures for January and July ; monthly figures : January and July, averages.
Canada. Annual figures : averages.
China. Annual figures : September of each year.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Denmark				Estonia					
	Industries, transport °, etc.				Industries, etc.					
	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)	General average	Men (skilled and unsk.)		Women (skilled and unsk.)		General average	
	Hourly earnings				Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings
Money wages										
	Öre	Öre	Öre	Öre	Sents.	E. Kr.	Sents.	E. Kr.	Sents.	E. Kr.
1929	153	124	83	128	37.9	19.02	23.0	10.92	32.5	15.82
1930	156	126	84	131	38.7	19.32	23.0	10.95	31.9	15.82
1931	155	126	84	131	37.0	17.23	22.9	10.22	29.9	14.42
1932	153	127	85	131	34.5	15.28	22.1	9.56	29.2	12.99
1933	153	127	85	131	33.2	14.70	22.0	9.52	29.0	12.68
1934	154	129	86	132	33.0	15.17	21.9	9.84	29.9	13.25
1935	155	129	87	133	34.4	16.45	22.4	10.51	31.6	14.21
1936	156	130	87	132	36.3	18.00	23.4	11.22	34.4	15.20
1937	158	133	88	135	39.4	19.58	25.0	11.95	37.1	16.89
1938	—	—	—	—	42.4	20.80	26.5	12.45	37.1	18.01
1937 : Dec.	162	136	90	138	42.0	20.44	26.5	12.48	36.7	17.73
1938 : March	160	133	91	136	40.5	19.71	25.8	12.01	35.4	16.99
June	167	141	95	143	44.2	22.20	27.1	12.94	39.0	19.28
Sept.	—	—	—	—	43.6	21.26	26.7	12.59	37.6	18.30
Dec.	—	—	—	—	44.7	21.98	28.3	13.27	39.1	18.92
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	102	102	101	102	102	102	100	100	101	100
1931	101	102	101	102	98	91	100	94	99	91
1932	100	102	102	102	91	80	96	88	93	82
1933	100	103	102	102	88	77	96	87	91	80
1934	100	104	103	103	87	80	95	90	90	84
1935	101	104	105	104	91	86	97	96	93	90
1936	102	105	105	103	96	95	102	103	98	96
1937	103	107	106	105	104	103	109	109	107	107
1938	—	—	—	—	112	109	115	114	116	114
1937 : Dec.	106	110	108	108	111	107	115	114	111	109
1938 : March	105	107	110	106	107	104	112	110	114	112
June	109	114	114	112	117	117	118	118	110	107
Sept.	—	—	—	—	114	112	116	115	117	116
Dec.	—	—	—	—	118	116	123	122	122	120
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)										
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	107	106	106	107	(115)	(114)	(112)	(113)	(114)	(112)
1931	113	114	113	114	(114)	(106)	(116)	(109)	(116)	(107)
1932	112	114	114	114	(113)	(100)	(120)	(109)	(116)	(102)
1933	109	112	111	111	(116)	(103)	(127)	(116)	(121)	(107)
1934	105	109	108	107	(117)	(107)	(128)	(121)	(121)	(113)
1935	103	106	106	105	(120)	(115)	(129)	(128)	(123)	(119)
1936	102	105	104	103	(114)	(113)	(121)	(123)	(117)	(115)
1937	99	104	102	102	(117)	(116)	(122)	(123)	(120)	(120)
1938	—	—	—	—	(119)	(117)	(123)	(127)	(123)	(121)
1937 : Dec.	101	104	102	102	(119)	(116)	(124)	(124)	(123)	(121)
1938 : March	98	101	103	100	(113)	(109)	(118)	(116)	(116)	(113)
June	102	107	107	105	(124)	(124)	(125)	(126)	(129)	(130)
Sept.	—	—	—	—	(121)	(120)	(124)	(124)	(125)	(124)
Dec.	—	—	—	—	(126)	(124)	(131)	(130)	(130)	(128)
Persons covered 1937	50,267	56,076	31,804	138,147	25,076		14,470		39,546	

Denmark. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Estonia. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	United States									
	B.L.S. series				N.I.C.B. series					
	Mines		Industries		Industries					
	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women (skilled and unsk.)		Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average	
	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings
Money wages										
	Cents	$	Cents	$	Cents	$	Cents	$	Cents	$
1929	*	*	*	*	62.5	30.64	39.8	17.61	59.0	28.55
1930	*	21.97	*	25.34	62.2	27.66	39.5	15.98	58.9	25.84
1931	*	17.82	*	22.38	59.7	24.00	37.1	14.69	56.4	22.62
1932	52.0	13.91	46.5	18.12	52.6	17.96	32.5	11.73	49.8	17.05
1933	50.1	14.47	46.0	17.51	51.8	18.69	34.0	12.35	49.1	17.71
1934	67.2	18.10	54.8	19.14	60.4	21.00	42.5	14.44	58.1	20.12
1935	74.5	19.58	56.8	21.06	62.4	23.39	43.4	15.28	60.0	22.28
1936	79.4	22.71	57.5	22.82	64.4	25.96	43.0	15.59	61.6	24.47
1937	86.2	23.75	64.3	25.11	72.7	28.83	46.8	16.88	69.3	27.10
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	86.6	25.49	66.6	22.93	75.1	25.58	48.4	15.56	71.5	24.36
1938 : March	86.8	19.57	65.5	22.46	74.3	24.64	48.3	15.10	71.4	23.63
June	87.9	18.92	64.8	22.30	74.8	25.00	47.6	14.62	71.9	23.74
Sept.	88.5	22.93	63.2	23.32	74.3	27.50	47.2	16.22	71.3	25.82
Dec.	—	24.05†	64.5†	24.24†	75.9	27.76	47.3	17.00	71.3	26.02
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]										
1929	*	100[2]	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	*	87	*	93	100	90	99	91	100	91
1931	*	69	*	83	96	78	93	83	96	79
1932	100[2]	53	100[2]	68	84	59	82	67	84	60
1933	*96*	56	*98*	66	83	61	85	70	83	62
1934	*128*	70	*116*	72	97	69	107	82	98	70
1935	*139*	76	*120*	78	100	76	109	87	102	78
1936	*147*	90	*121*	84	103	85	108	89	104	86
1937	*161*	94	*136*	93	116	94	118	96	117	95
1938	—	97	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*162*	101	*141*	86	120	83	122	88	121	85
1938 : March	*162*	73	*138*	84	119	80	121	86	121	83
June	—	71	—	83	120	82	120	83	122	83
Sept.	—	86	—	88	119	90	119	92	121	90
Dec.	—	87†	—	92†	121	91	119	97	121	91
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]										
1929	*	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	*	89	*	95	103	93	103	94	103[3]	94
1931	*	78	*	94	110	90	107	96	110	91
1932	100	66	100	84	108	75	105	86	108	77
1933	*101*	73	*103*	86	111	82	114	94	111	83
1934	*130*	89	*118*	92	122	86	135	103	124	89
1935	*137*	94	*119*	96	121	92	132	105	123	95
1936	*144*	109	*118*	102	122	100	128	104	123	101
1937	*152*	111	*129*	110	132	106	133	108	133	107
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*153*	119	*133*	101	136	94	137	100	137	96
1938 : March	*156*	88	*133*	101	137	93	140	99	140	96
June	—	85	—	100	138	94	138	96	141	96
Sept.	—	104	—	105	139	105	138	107	141	105
Dec.	—	104†	—	110†	141	106	138	113	141	106
Persons covered 1937	170,142	246,040	3,882,114	4,337,495	*		*		*	

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929. [2] The index numbers of money wages have been calculated on the basis of the monthly percentages of change of wages in identical undertakings from month to month ; the money wages given above have therefore not been used directly for the purpose of this calculation. See note on method in the *Review* for August 1935, pp. 250-260, or the *Year-Book of Labour Statistics*, 1935-36.

United States : B.L.S. Series : Mines and industries ; annual figures : averages (except money wages for 1930 ; averages for the last quarter) ; monthly figures : a week nearest to the 15th of the month. N.I.C.B. Series : Industries : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : first week of the month.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	France							
	Mines	Industries (metals, etc.)	Industries, etc.					
		Paris region	Paris		Towns other than Paris			
	Men (chiefly sk. & unsk.)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (chiefly skilled)				Women (chiefly skilled)	
	Daily earnings	Hourly rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates
Money wages								
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.
1929	34.29	5.45	6.10	49.56	3.83	31.34	2.26	18.30
1930	37.01	5.79	6.64	53.99	4.08	33.66	2.42	19.79
1931	35.68	5.74	6.61	53.83	4.08	33.60	2.42	19.73
1932	32.86	5.47	6.34	50.72	3.99	32.54	2.35	19.03
1933	32.53	5.57	6.34	50.72	3.89	31.70	2.26	18.18
1934	32.61	5.54	6.34	50.72	3.89	31.60	2.28	18.38
1935	32.47	5.49	6.23	49.75	3.80	30.72	2.26	18.13
1936	36.11	6.33	7.06	56.50	4.42	35.54	2.62	21.01
1937	50.19	9.41	10.06	*	5.60	*	3.08	*
1938	—	—	—	*	—	*	—	*
1937 : Dec.	54.34	10.00	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	55.79	10.20	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	57.09	10.50	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	57.97	10.51 r	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	60.16	10.78†	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)								
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	108	106	109	109	107	107	107	108
1931	104	105	108	109	107	107	107	108
1932	96	100	104	102	104	104	104	104
1933	95	102	104	102	102	101	100	99
1934	95	102	104	102	102	101	101	100
1935	95	101	102	100	99	98	100	99
1936	105	116	116	114	115	113	116	115
1937	146	173	165	*	146	*	136	*
1938	—	—	—	*	—	*	—	*
1937 : Dec.	158	183	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	163	187	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	166	193	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	169	193 r	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	176	198†	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]								
1929	*	100	100	100	*	*	*	*
1930	(100)	101	104	104	100	100	100	100
1931	(99)	103	106	107	*103*	*103*	*103*	*103*
1932	(98)	106	110	108	*108*	*107*	*107*	*106*
1933	(101)	109	111	109	*109*	*108*	*107*	*105*
1934	(106)	110	112	110	*114*	*113*	*113*	*111*
1935	(112)	116	117	116	*119*	*117*	*119*	*117*
1936	(114)	127	127	125	*126*	*123*	*126*	*124*
1937	(132)	155	148	*	*134*	*	*124*	*
1938	—	—	—	*	—	*	—	*
1937 : Dec.	(133)	155	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	(133)	151	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	(134)	155	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	(134)	156 r	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	(134)	152†	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered 1937	238,500	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.

France. Mines : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Industries (metals, etc.) : annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question. Industries, etc. : annual figures : October of each year.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Great Britain		Hungary				Italy
	M. of L. series	L. & C.E.S. series	Mines	Industries		Transport	Industries, etc.
	Agric., mines, ind., transp., local auth.		Men and women (skilled and unskilled)				Men and women (sk. and unsk.)
	Men and women (skilled and unsk.)						
	Weekly rates		Earnings per shift	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Insured daily wages	Hourly earnings
Money wages							
			Pengö	Pengö	Pengö	Pengö	Lire
1929	*	*	5.07	0.57	5.58	4.07	2.09
1930	*	*	4.68	0.57	5.35	4.21	2.07
1931	*	*	4.60	0.54	5.05	4.10	1.95
1932	*	*	4.57	0.50	4.67	4.02	1.91
1933	*	*	4.29	0.48	4.34	3.63	1.86
1934	*	*	4.10	0.46	4.05	3.96	1.80
1935	*	*	4.00	0.44	4.02	4.28	1.77
1936	*	*	3.92	0.45	—	4.12	1.88
1937	*	*	—	0.46	—	4.09	2.11
1938	*	*	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	—	*	*	4.18	2.18
1938 : March	*	*	—	*	*	3.95	2.16
June	*	*	—	*	*	4.19	2.25
Sept.	*	*	—	*	*	4.08	—
Dec.	*	*	—	*	*	—	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)							
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	100	99	92	100	96	103	99
1931	98	98	91	95	91	101	93
1932	96	96	90	88	84	99	91
1933	95	95	85	84	78	89	89
1934	96	95	81	81	73	97	86
1935	97	96	79	77	72	105	85
1936	100	98	77	79	—	101	90
1937	104	102	—	81	—	100	101
1938	107	105	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	105	104	—	*	*	103	104
1938 : March	107	105	—	*	*	97	103
June	108	105	—	*	*	103	108
Sept.	107	105	—	*	*	100	—
Dec.	107	105	—	*	*	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)							
1929	100	100	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	100
1930	104	103	(102)	(110)	(106)	(114)	102
1931	109	109	(106)	(111)	(106)	(118)	107
1932	110	110	(108)	(105)	(100)	(118)	110
1933	112	111	(109)	(109)	(101)	(115)	112
1934	111	110	(107)	(106)	(96)	(128)	114
1935	111	110	(102)	(99)	(93)	(135)	111
1936	111	110	(94)	(96)	—	(123)	109
1937	110	108	—	(92)	—	(115)	111
1938	113	111	—	(92)	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	108	106	—	*	*	(116)	106
1938 : March	112	110	—	*	*	(110)	105
June	113	111	—	*	*	(118)	110
Sept.	113	110	—	*	*	(114)	—
Dec.	113	111	—	*	*	—	—
Persons covered 1937	*	*	—	—		—	1,440,106

Great Britain (including Northern Ireland). Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : Ministry of Labour series : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question ; London and Cambridge Economic Service series : averages for the month in question.

Hungary. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

Italy. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Japan							
	Imperial Cabinet series					Bank of Japan series		
	Mines	Industries			Transport	Industries		
	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (sk. and unsk.)	Women (sk. and unsk.)	General average	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (sk. and unsk.)	Women (sk. and unsk.)	General average
	Daily earnings							
Money wages								
	Sen	Sen	Sen	Sen	Sen	Sen	Sen	
1929	181.0	264.5	98.9	206.4	185.4	*	*	*
1930	170.6	255.1	91.3	200.2	189.8	*	*	*
1931	152.7	243.0	82.1	187.0	191.7	*	*	*
1932	145.5	250.6	76.5	190.9	192.0	*	*	*
1933	154.7	254.4	73.5	187.9	194.3	213.8	70.8	*
1934	165.3	248.6	72.5	189.3	192.8	217.1	70.0	*
1935	165.3	243.3	72.6	188.1	189.9	215.4	69.9	*
1936	174.5	241.5	73.8	190.1	190.1	213.1	70.2	*
1937	193.8	247.6	78.4	195.7	195.9	222.1	75.0	*
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	*
1937 : Dec.	206.0	252.3	81.4	201.5	198.0	236.0	77.3	*
1938 : March	212.8	249.1	84.0	202.6	195.5	233.2	77.9	*
June	223.8	247.5	84.1	229.0	196.0	234.6	78.6	*
Sept.	229.7	245.5	84.7	201.8	190.1	235.1	79.7	*
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)								
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	94	96	92	97	102	95	91	95
1931	84	92	83	91	103	90	80	87
1932	80	95	77	92	104	90	74	85
1933	85	96	74	91	105	93	71	86
1934	91	94	73	92	104	94	70	88
1935	91	92	73	91	102	93	69	88
1936	96	91	75	92	103	92	69	88
1937	107	94	79	95	106	96	74	93
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	114	95	82	98	107	102	76	99
1938 : March	118	94	85	98	105	100	77	100
June	124	94	85	111	106	101	77	101
Sept.	127	93	86	98	103	101	78	102
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]								
1929	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1931	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1932	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1933	*104*	*99*	*94*	*96*	*99*	*100*	*94*	*98*
1934	*107*	*93*	*89*	*93*	*95*	*98*	*89*	*97*
1935	*103*	*88*	*86*	*89*	*90*	*93*	*85*	*94*
1936	*106*	*86*	*86*	*88*	*88*	*90*	*83*	*92*
1937	*113*	*84*	*87*	*87*	*87*	*90*	*85*	*93*
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*118*	*84*	*88*	*88*	*86*	*93*	*86*	*97*
1938 : March	*118*	*80*	*89*	*86*	*82*	*90*	*85*	*96*
June	*122*	*78*	*87*	*95*	*81*	*88*	*83*	*95*
Sept.	*123*	*72*	*67*	*76*	*80*	*87*	*83*	*93*
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persons covered 1937	—	—	—	—	—	802,302	626,294	1,428,596

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.

Japan. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Latvia (Riga)					Lithuania		
	Industries, etc.					Industries		
	Men (skilled)	Men (unsk.)	Women (skilled)	Women (unsk.)	General average	Men (skilled)	Men (unsk.)	Women [1] (sk. and unsk.)
	Hourly earnings					Daily rates		
Money wages								
	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Sants.	Litas	Litas	Litas
1929	81	57	45	33	51	*	*	*
1930	84	59	44	33	53	11.60	7.20	4.50
1931	82	57	42	33	53	11.55	6.90	4.30
1932	72	50	39	31	46	10.40	6.50	4.15
1933	65	47	38	30	43	9.15	5.55	3.75
1934	63	47	38	30	43	8.55	5.00	3.50
1935	64	49	39	30	43	8.30	5.15	3.55
1936	65	49	40	30	44	8.25	5.05	3.45
1937	68	52	41	32	46	8.75	5.45	3.95
1938	73	55	45	35	50	9.75	5.55	4.35
1937 : Dec.	72	54	44	34	49	*	*	*
1938 : March	72	53	44	35	49	*	*	*
June	74	56	45	35	51	*	*	*
Sept.	74	55	46	35	51	*	*	*
Dec.	75	56	46	36	51	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [2]								
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	*	*
1930	104	104	98	100	104	**100**	**100**	**100**
1931	101	100	98	100	104	*100*	*96*	*96*
1932	89	88	87	94	90	*90*	*90*	*92*
1933	80	82	84	91	84	*79*	*77*	*83*
1934	78	82	84	91	84	*74*	*69*	*78*
1935	79	86	87	91	84	*72*	*72*	*79*
1936	80	85	89	93	86	*71*	*70*	*77*
1937	84	90	92	97	90	*75*	*76*	*88*
1938	90	96	100	106	98	*84*	*77*	*97*
1937 : Dec.	89	95	98	103	96	*	*	*
1938 : March	89	93	98	106	96	*	*	*
June	91	98	100	106	100	*	*	*
Sept.	91	96	102	106	100	*	*	*
Dec.	93	98	102	109	100	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [2]								
1929	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1930	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
1931	*107*	*106*	*110*	*111*	*110*	*107*	*103*	*102*
1932	*108*	*107*	*112*	*118*	*110*	*113*	*114*	*117*
1933	*102*	*105*	*114*	*120*	*107*	*115*	*113*	*122*
1934	*104*	*111*	*120*	*126*	*113*	*116*	*109*	*122*
1935	*104*	*114*	*121*	*125*	*111*	*128*	*128*	*141*
1936	*106*	*113*	*124*	*127*	*114*	*125*	*123*	*135*
1937	*102*	*111*	*119*	*123*	*110*	*120*	*121*	*140*
1938	*100*	*107*	*118*	*122*	*108*	*132*	*121*	*151*
1937 : Dec.	*106*	*113*	*123*	*127*	*114*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*106*	*111*	*123*	*131*	*114*	*	*	*
June	*95*	*102*	*110*	*114*	*103*	*	*	*
Sept.	*101*	*107*	*120*	*122*	*111*	*	*	*
Dec.	*104*	*110*	*122*	*127*	*112*	*	*	*
Persons covered 1937	43.029					*		

[1] Up to 1933, unskilled women only.

[2] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.

Latvia. Annual and monthly figures : averages.

Lithuania. Annual figures : up to 1933, figures for June ; from 1934 onwards : figures for July.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Luxemburg		Norway	New Zealand		Palestine	Netherlands		
	Mines, industries, etc.		Mines, industries	Agric.[a], mines [a], ind., transp. [a], commerce		Industries	Mines, ind., tr.	Mines, industries	Mines, ind., transp., comm., publ. servic.
	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Women (skilled and unsk.)	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Women (skilled and unsk.)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (skilled)	Men (skilled and unsk.)	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)
	Daily earnings		Daily earnings	Weekly rates (minim.)		Daily rates	Rates	Hourly earnings	Insured daily wages
Money wages									
	Fr.	Fr.	Kr.						Fl.
1929	*	*	11.75	*	*	*	*	*	4.20
1930	*	*	11.80	*	*	*	*	*	4.23
1931	*	*	11.26	*	*	*	*	*	4.22
1932	*	*	11.48	*	*	*	*	*	4.07
1933	41.11	20.92	11.31	*	*	*	*	*	3.92
1934	39.67	20.99	11.34	*	*	*	*	*	3.77
1935	42.00	21.47	11.34	*	*	*	*	*	3.64
1936	43.43	21.59	11.71	*	*	*	*	*	3.54
1937	—	—	12.59	*	*	*	*	*	—
1938	—	—	—	*	*	*	*	*	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]									
1929	*	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	*	*	100	100	100	105	100	102	101
1931	*	*	96	93	94	101	100	100	100
1932	*	*	98	85	90	101	94	93	97
1933	100	100	96	82	88	112	90	89	93
1934	*96*	*100*	97	82	88	137	87	86	90
1935	*102*	*103*	97	84	89	133	86	83	87
1936	*106*	*103*	100	93	95	128	84	81	84
1937	—	—	107	102	100	124	85	82	—
1938	—	—	—	—	—	120	87	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	104	*	*	86	83	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	105	*	121	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	106	*	*	88	85 [2]	*
Sept.	*	*	*	106	*	119	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	107	*	*	87	—	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]									*
1929	*	*	100	100	100	*	(100)	(100)	(100)
1930	*	*	104	102	102	*	(105)	(106)	(105)
1931	*	*	104	103	105	*	(111)	(111)	(112)
1932	*	*	109	102	107	*	(112)	(111)	(115)
1933	100	100	109	103	111	*	(108)	(107)	(112)
1934	*100*	*104*	108	102	109	*	(104)	(104)	(108)
1935	*108*	*109*	106	101	107	*	(106)	(103)	(107)
1936	*111*	*109*	107	108	111	*	(106)	(103)	(107)
1937	—	—	107	111	109	*	(105)	(101)	—
1938	—	—	—	—	—	*	(106)	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	110	*	*	(104)	(100)	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	111	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	112	*	*	(105)	(102) [2]	*
Sept.	*	*	*	112	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	111	*	*	(106)	—	*
Persons covered 1937	25,989 [2]	1,472 [2]	*	*		*	*	75,000	1,184,067 [2]

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.
[2] Figures for 1936.

Luxemburg. Annual figures : averages.

Norway. Annual figures : third quarter of each year, except for 1931 (fourth quarter).

New Zealand. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the quarter ending with the month in question.

Palestine. (Jewish labour.) Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : end of the month in question.

Netherlands. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for the half-year ending with the month in question.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Poland					Rumania
	Mines, industries	Industries				Ind. (some agric. occ., transport, commerce)
	Men and women (sk. and unsk.)	Men (Skilled and unskilled)	Women (Skilled and unskilled)	General average (including young persons)		Men and women (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly earnings	Hourly earnings			Weekly earnings	Monthly earnings
Money wages						
	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.	Zl.	
1929	1.01	*	*	*	*	*
1930	1.00	*	*	*	*	*
1931	0.93	*	*	*	*	*
1932	0.86	0.81	0.56	0.72	29.60	*
1933	0.78	0.74	0.52	0.66	28.01	*
1934	0.74	0.71	0.50	0.64	26.74	*
1935	0.72	0.70	0.50	0.63	26.96	*
1936	0.71	0.71	0.50	0.63	27.30	*
1937	0.74	0.75	0.52	0.67	29.30	*
1938	—	—	—	—	—	*
1937 : Dec.	0.77	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	0.77	*	*	*	*	*
June	0.79	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	0.78	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	—	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]						
1929	100	*	*	*	*	100
1930	99	*	*	*	*	96
1931	92	*	*	*	*	85
1932	85	100	100	100	100	69
1933	77	*91*	*93*	*92*	*95*	63
1934	73	*88*	*89*	*89*	*90*	62
1935	71	*86*	*89*	*88*	*91*	61
1936	70	*88*	*89*	*88*	*92*	62
1937	73	*93*	*93*	*93*	*99*	66
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	76	*	*	*	*	67
1938 : March	76	*	*	*	*	67
June	78	*	*	*	*	—
Sept.	77	*	*	*	*	—
Dec.	—	*	*	*	*	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]						
1929	(100)	*	*	*	*	(100)
1930	(108)	*	*	*	*	(107)
1931	(112)	*	*	*	*	(116)
1932	(114)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(111)
1933	(115)	(*101*)	(*103*)	(*102*)	(*105*)	(111)
1934	(118)	(*105*)	(*107*)	(*106*)	(*108*)	(116)
1935	(119)	(*108*)	(*111*)	(*109*)	(*114*)	(110)
1936	(122)	(*113*)	(*115*)	(*113*)	(*119*)	(108)
1937	(119)	(*112*)	(*112*)	(*112*)	(*119*)	(100)
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	(123)	*	*	*	*	(93)
1938 : March	(126)	*	*	*	*	—
June	(129)	*	*	*	*	—
Sept.	(128)	*	*	*	*	—
Dec.	—	*	*	*	*	—
Persons covered 1937	598,506	410,914	171,538	—	—	*

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.

Poland. Mines industries : annual and monthly figures : averages (from 1928 to 1931, indexes calculated on the basis of the movement of rates). Industries : annual figures : one pay period (generally a week) in the month of August in each year.

Rumania. Annual figures : averages ; monthly figures : averages for January, April, July, and October. The index numbers of real wages have been recalculated according to a new cost-of-living index number relating to Bucharest only.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Sweden								
	Mines °, industries, transport, commerce								
	Men (skilled and unskilled)			Women (skilled and unskilled)			General average (including young persons)		
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Weekly earnings
Money wages									
	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.	Kr.
1929	1.25	9.99	59.63[1]	0.74	5.80	34.19[1]	1.12	8.94	52.98[1]
1930	1.29	10.40	61.66[1]	0.75	5.95	34.50[1]	1.16	9.29	55.10[1]
1931	1.29	10.26	57.41[1]	0.75	5.88	32.70[1]	1.15	9.16	50.95[1]
1932	1.27	10.12	56.48	0.74	5.86	32.28	1.14	9.04	50.46
1933	1.22	9.75	54.73	0.73	5.75	32.69	1.09	8.73	49.16
1934	1.22	9.79	56.10	0.73	5.75	32.57	1.09	8.76	50.11
1935	1.24	10.12	57.63	0.74	5.84	33.65	1.12	9.03	51.54
1936	1.25	10.11	59.62	0.75	5.91	34.64	1.12	9.00	52.99
1937	1.29	10.44	61.48	0.77	6.08	35.40[r]	1.15	9.24[r]	54.32[r]
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	103	104	103	101	103	101	104	104	104
1931	103	103	96	101	101	96	103	102	96
1932	102	101	95	100	101	94	102	101	95
1933	98	98	92	99	99	96	97	98	93
1934	98	98	94	99	99	95	97	98	95
1935	99	101	97	100	101	98	100	101	97
1936	100	101	100	101	102	101	100	101	100
1937	103	105	103	104	105	104	103	103[r]	103
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100)									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	106	107	106	104	106	104	107	107	107
1931	110	109	103	108	108	102	109	109	103
1932	110	110	102	108	110	102	110	110	103
1933	108	108	101	109	110	106	107	108	102
1934	107	108	104	108	109	105	107	108	104
1935	107	110	105	108	109	107	107	110	106
1936	107	108	108	108	109	109	107	108	108
1937	109	110	109	110	110	109	108	109	108
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered 1937	365,270			73,102			476,591		

[1] Approximate figures.

Sweden. Annual figures : averages.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*cont.*)

Date	Switzerland					
	Industries, some transport, commerce, etc.					
	Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)	
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings
Money wages						
	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.	Frs.
1929	1.48	12.45	1.14	9.85	0.77	6.45
1930	1.49	12.57	1.16	9.90	0.76	6.36
1931	1.51	12.62	1.16	9.97	0.78	6.36
1932	1.45	12.92	1.11	10.35	0.74	6.54
1933	1.43	12.73	1.09	10.08	0.72	6.32
1934	1.39	12.75	1.07	10.00	0.71	6.46
1935	1.36	12.39	1.05	9.73	0.70	6.36
1936	1.33	12.12	1.03	9.51	0.69	6.11
1937	1.32	11.90	1.05	9.69	0.69	6.24
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]						
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	101	101	102	101	99	99
1931	102	101	102	101	101	99
1932	98	100	97	100	96	100
1933	97	*99*	96	*97*	94	*97*
1934	94	*99*	94	*97*	92	*99*
1935	92	*98*	92	*94*	91	*97*
1936	90	*94*	90	*92*	90	*93*
1937	89	*92*	92	*94*	90	*95*
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]						
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	103	103	104	102	101	101
1931	109	109	109	109	109	106
1932	114	100	114	100	112	100
1933	119	*104*	117	*103*	115	*102*
1934	117	*106*	117	*103*	115	*106*
1935	116	*103*	116	*101*	114	*105*
1936	111	*99*	111	*97*	111	*99*
1937	105	*93*	108	*94*	106	*96*
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937 : Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*
1938 : March	*	*	*	*	*	*
June	*	*	*	*	*	*
Sept.	*	*	*	*	*	*
Dec.	*	*	*	*	*	*
Persons covered 1937	21,732	5,678	19,126	4,849	5,841	1,060

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929.

Switzerland. Annual figures : averages. From 1932 onwards the index numbers of daily earnings are no longer strictly comparable with those for previous years owing to a change in method.

STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF WAGES (*concluded*)

Date	Czecho-Slovakia				Union of South Africa	U.S.S.R.		Yugoslavia	
	Mines	Industries (Prague)		Agr., ind., some transport, comm. etc.	Mines, ind., transport, commerce	Mines, industries		Croatia & Slavonia: Mines, ind., transport, commerce	Ind., some transport, comm., etc.
	Men and women (sk. and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women (sk. and unskilled)	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women (sk. and unskilled)	Men and women (sk. and unskilled)
	Earnings per shift	Hourly rates (minim.)	Weekly rates (minim.)	Insured daily wages	Weekly rates	Daily wages	Monthly wages	Monthly earnings	Insured daily wages
Money wages									
	Kč.	Kč.	Kč.	Kč.		Rbls.	Rbls.	Dinars	Dinars
1929	43.29	4.37	209.98	19.11	*	3.07	77.06	*	26.32
1930	43.89	4.47	214.75	19.13	*	3.55	82.59	1,143	26.56
1931	44.94	4.49	215.65	18.66	*	4.11	96.10	1,137	26.18
1932	44.72	4.49	215.50	17.73	*	4.88	115.42	1,042	24.58
1933	44.35	4.47	214.56	16.72	*	5.18	126.08	988	23.22
1934	43.10	4.37	209.54	16.30	*	5.94	147.30	899	22.24
1935	43.11	4.34	208.32	15.93	*	7.55	186.75	890	21.65
1936	42.89	4.33	207.84	16.18	*	9.23	225.58	909	21.66
1937	43.32	4.22	202.56	17.13	*	10.15	242.46	950	22.65
1938	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—
1937: Dec.	*	4.31	207.35	17.40	*	*	*	950	23.07
1938: March	*	4.32	207.72	17.29	*	*	*	—	23.08
June	*	4.33	208.02	17.71	*	*	*	—	23.56
Sept.	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	24.23
Dec.	*	—	—	17.88†	*	*	*	—	—
Index numbers of money wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]									
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	100
1930	101	102	102	100	100	116	107	100	101
1931	104	103	103	98	97	134	125	*100*	100
1932	103	103	103	93	93	159	150	*91*	93
1933	102	102	102	88	94	169	164	*86*	88
1934	100	100	100	85	94	193	191	*79*	84
1935	100	99	99	83	98	246	242	*78*	82
1936	99	99	99	85	100	301	293	*80*	82
1937	100	97	97	90	100†	331	315	*83*	86
1938	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1937: Dec.	*	99	99	91	*	*	*	*83*	88
1938: March	*	99	99	90	*	*	*	—	88
June	*	99	99	93	*	*	*	—	90
Sept.	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	92
Dec.	*	—	—	94†	*	*	*	—	—
Index numbers of real wages (Base : 1929 = 100) [1]									
1929	(100)	100	100	100	100	*	*	*	(100)
1930	(104)	105	105	(102)	102	*	*	100	(110)
1931	(111)	110	110	(104)	103	*	*	*100*	(114)
1932	(113)	112	112	(101)	104	*	*	*99*	(115)
1933	(113)	113	113	(96)	108	*	*	*106*	(111)
1934	(111)	111	111	(95)	106	*	*	*106*	(112)
1935	(108)	108	107	(90)	111	*	*	*96*	(111)
1936	(106)	106	106	(91)	112	*	*	*95*	(111)
1937	(106)	102	102	(95)	111†	*	*	*92*	(110)
1938	—	—	—	—	—	*	*	—	—
1937: Dec.	*	104	104	(96)	*	*	*	*92*	(106)
1938: March	*	102	102	(93)	*	*	*	—	(104)
June	*	101	101	(94)	*	*	*	—	(102)
Sept.	*	—	—	—	*	*	*	—	(105)
Dec.	*	—	—	(92)†	*	*	*	—	—
Persons covered 1937	80,308 [2]	*		2,211,648	*	6,722,000		*	680,011

[1] Except for series in italics : base : nearest possible year to 1929. [2] Figure for 1936.

Czecho-Slovakia. Annual and monthly figures : averages. Before 1929, real wages calculated on a slightly different cost-of-living index.

Union of South Africa. Annual figures : 30 September of each year.

U.S.S.R. Annual figures : averages.

Yugoslavia. Croatia and Slavonia (monthly earnings) : annual figures : December of each year ; monthly figures : averages. Whole country (insured daily wages) : annual and monthly figures : averages.

Cost of Living

The object of cost-of-living index numbers is generally to show fluctuations in the purchasing power of money or in average retail prices, calculated with reference to the expenditure necessary to maintain a given standard of living or type of consumption; they are usually compiled by weighting the prices (absolute or relative) of a certain number of articles of common consumption according to their relative importance. Average prices are recorded regularly (in a more or less large number of towns in each country), and the weights are based either on the results of family-budget enquiries or theoretical budgets, or on estimates of the total consumption of, or total expenditure on, the items in question in the whole country during a given period.

As a result of the many variations which are found in the methods of computing cost-of-living index numbers (for example, in regard to geographical scope, the groups of expenditures represented in the general index and the items included in each group, the date, scope, and representative character, of the statistical base for the determination of the weights, the method of calculating average prices, group indexes, and the general index, etc.), the indexes are far from being equally reliable and representative of price movements. In any case, the indexes can be used only to measure *fluctuations* in time of the cost-of-living in a given country, and not to compare the *levels* of the cost-of-living in different countries at any given time.

The series of index numbers in the table below have been recalculated for the most part by the International Labour Office on the uniform base 1929 = 100. This change of base has been effected by simply dividing the index for each date by the corresponding index for 1929 (annual average) and multiplying the quotient by 100. This procedure may perhaps give rise to some slight inaccuracies, owing to the methods by which many of the indexes are compiled, but these errors are at most very slight, except when the fluctuations of the indexes reach a certain amplitude.

The headings of the table show the original base period of the indexes, the main groups of expenditures covered—food, heating and lighting, clothing, rent, and miscellaneous—and the number of towns in which prices are recorded (this number varying in certain countries according to the groups of expenditure).

COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

(*Base : 1929 = 100*)[1]

Country	Germany[2]	Austria	Argentina	Australia	Belgium	Burma	Brazil	Bulgaria	Canada
Towns and localities	72	Vienna	Buenos Aires	30	59	Rangoon	Rio de Janeiro	12-67[4]	60
Original base (= 100)	1913-1914	VII. 1914	X. 1933	1923-1927	1921	1931	1928-1929	1914	1926
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	96	100	101	95	104	*	91	92	99
1931	88	96	87	85	93	**100**	88	80	90
1932	78	97	78	81	84	*98*	88	73	81
1933	77	95	83	78	83	*90*	87	68	78
1934	79	95	78	80	79	*87*	94	64	79
1935	80	95	83	81	80	*89*	99	60	79
1936	81	95	91	83	85	*88*	114	57	81
1937	81	95	93	85	92	*89*	—	58	83
1938	82	94	—	87	94	*88*	—	60	84
1938 : Feb.	81	94	91	86[3]	95	*88*	—	60	84
March	81	94	92	*	94	*88*	—	60	84
April	81	94	92	*	92	*87*	—	60	84
May	81	94	92	87[3]	92	*87*	—	60	84
June	82	94	94	*	94	*87*	—	60	84
July	82	94	93	*	93	*91*	—	61	84
Aug.	82	93	91	88[3]	93	*87*	—	61[r]	85
Sept.	82	93	91	*	94	*87*	—	61[r]	84
Oct.	82	93	91	*	94	*86*	—	61[r]	84
Nov.	81	92	92	88[3]	95	*88*	—	60	84
Dec.	81	92	—	*	95	*85*	—	61	84
1939 : Jan.	82	—	—	*	95	*85*	—	61	83
Feb.	82	—	—	—	—	*82*	—	—	—

Country	Chile	China			Colombia	Costa Rica	Denmark	Danzig	Egypt
Towns and localities	Santiago	Peiping	Shanghai	Tientsin	Bogotá	San José	100	Danzig	Cairo
Original base (= 100)	III. 1928	1927	1926	1926	II. 1937	1936	1931	VII. 1913	I. 1913-VII. 1914
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-d*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a, c-e*
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	*	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	99	103	113	103	*	*	96	95	98
1931	98	90	117	98	*	*	90	88	91
1932	104	86	110	91	*	*	90	80	87
1933	130	76	99	80	*	*	92	77	83
1934	130	75	98	78	*	*	96	76	84
1935	132	81	99	86	*	*	99	85	86
1936	144	94	105	98	*	**100**	101	93	86
1937	162	—	122	—	**100**	*106*	104	97	85
1938	169	—	139	—	*113*	*107*	106	97	87
1938 : Feb.	162	—	147	—	*106*	*108*	*	97	86
March	165	—	139	—	*110*	*108*	107[r]	97	86
April	168	—	137	—	*118*	*108*	*	97	87
May	172	—	131	—	*121*	*108*	*	97	87
June	171	—	132	—	*122*	*107*	105	97	87
July	170	—	140	—	*120*	*105*	*	97	87
Aug.	170	—	146	—	*109*[r]	*106*	*	98	87
Sept.	171	—	143	—	*110*[r]	*107*	106	98	86
Oct.	173	—	142	—	*112*	*107*	*	97	87
Nov.	172	—	138	—	*114*	*107*	*	97	87
Dec.	168	—	134	—	*114*	*108*	106	97	87
1939 : Jan.	—	—	135	—	—	*106*	*	97	86
Feb.	—	—	140	—	—	—	*	98	—

Composition of the indexes : *a* = Food ; *b* = Heating and lighting ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Except for series in italics : original base, or recalculated on the nearest possible year to 1929.
[2] Excluding Austria. [3] Quarterly averages. [4] The monthly indexes relate to 12 towns.

COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS (*cont.*)

(*Base : 1929 = 100*) [1]

Country	Spain	Estonia	United States		Finland	France		Great Britain and N. Ireland	Greece	Hungary
			B.L.S.[2]	N.I.C.B.[3]						
Towns and localities	Madrid	Tallinn	32-51	51-174	36	Paris	45	24-509	44[4]	Budapest
Original base (= 100)	1914	1913	1923-1925	1923	1935	1914	1930	VII. 1914	XII. 1914	1913
Composition of the index	*a, b, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-d*
1929	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**
1930	103	89	97	97	*	105	**100**	96	88	91
1931	107	86	89	87	*	102	*97*	90	**100**	86
1932	103	80	80	78	*	95	*91*	88	*106*	83
1933	100	75	76	75	*	94	*87*	85	*114*	77
1934	102	74	79	79	*	93	*83*	86	*116*	76
1935	99	75	81	83	**100**	87	*78*	87	*117*	78
1936	—	84	82	85	*100*	91	*86*	90	*121*	82
1937	—	89	85	88	*105*	111	*102*	94	*131*	87
1938	—	94	84	86	*108*	126	*117*	95	*130*	88
1938: Feb.	—	94	*	87	*	124[5]	*113*[5]	95	*133*	88
March	—	95	83	87	*	*	*	94	*131*	88
April	—	94	*	87	*107*	*	*	95	*131*	89
May	—	93	*	86	*	124[5]	*115*[5]	95	*130*	89
June	—	94	84	87	*	*	*	97	*128*	87
July	—	95	*	86	*106*	*	*	95	*128*	87
Aug.	—	94	*	86	*	124[5]	*117*[5]	95	*128*	87
Sept.	—	93	83	86	*	*	*	95	*130*	88
Oct.	—	92	*	86	*109*	*	*	95	*130*	87
Nov.	—	92	*	86	*	130[5]	*120*[5]	95	*130*	87
Dec.	—	93	83	86	*	*	*	95	*130*	87
1939: Jan.	—	95	*	85	*109*	*	*	95	*130*	86
Feb.	—	—	*	—	*	—	—	93†	—	—

Country	India			Netherlands Indies		Indo-China	Iran	Ireland	Italy	Japan		
										C. I.[7]	O.A.S.[8]	B. J.[9]
Towns and localities	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Lahore	Java and Madura	Batavia	Saigon	7	105	50	24	13	Tokyo
Original base (= 100)	VII. 1913-VI. 1934	VIII. 1918-VII. 1927	1931-1935	1913	I. 1929	1925	21. III. 1936-20. III. 1937	VII. 1914	VI. 1928	VII. 1937	VII. 1914	VII. 1914
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a, b, e*	*a-e*	*a, d, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-c, e*
1929	*	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	**100**	*	**100**	**100**	*	*	**100**
1930	*	90	*	97	—	107	*	97	97	*	*	86
1931	*	77	*	65	—	93	*	91	87	*	*98*[6]	75
1932	*	78	*	48	—	81	*	89	83	*	**100**	75
1933	**100**	74	*	39	—	75	*	86	80	*	*103*	80
1934	*99*[6]	73	*	39	—	69	*	87	76	*	*106*	82
1935	*100*	73	*100*	41	*52*[6]	69	*	89	77	*	*110*	84
1936	*101*	73	*115*	38	*49*[6]	70	**100**	91	83	*	*113*	88
1937	*106*	78	*128*[6]	44	*52*	83	*115*	97	91	**100**	*118*	96
1938	*106*	73	—	44	*53*	95	—	98	98	—	*126*	110
1938: Feb.	*107*	73	*112*	47	*53*	90	*134*	98	98	*106*	*122*	105
March	*107*	73	*108*	46	*53*	*	*135*	*	98	*107*	*124*	106
April	*105*	71	*108*	45	*52*	*	*134*	*	98	*108*	*125*	109
May	*104*	72	*104*	44	*52*	93	*134*	97	99	*108*	*125*	109
June	*105*	73	*104*	44	*52*	*	*130*	*	98	*109*	*126*	109
July	*106*	73	*105*	43	*52*	*	*130*	*	98	*112*	*128*	110
Aug.	*105*	73	*105*	43	*53*	96	*130*	98	97	*113*	*129*	112
Sept.	*105*	73	*108*	43	*53*	*	*130*	*	97	*113*	*129*	113
Oct.	*105*	74	*110*	43	*53*	*	*129*	*	98	*113*	*129*	115
Nov.	*106*	74	*106*	43	*53*	97	—	100	98	*113*	*129*	116
Dec.	*104*	74	—	43	*53*	*	—	*	99	—	*129*	117
1939: Jan.	*105*	—	—	—	*53*	*	—	*	99	—	*129*	116
Feb.	*104*	—	—	—	—	—	—	99	—	—	—	118

Composition of the indexes : *a* = Food ; *b* = Heating and lighting ; *c* = Clothing ; *d* = Rent ; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Except for the series in italics : original base, or recalculated on the nearest possible year to 1929. [2] Bureau of Labor Statistics. [3] National Industrial Conference Board. [4] Until end of 1930 : 106 towns. [5] Quarterly averages. [6] Average calculated for a period of less than one year. [7] Imperial Cabinet. [8] Osaka Asahi Shimbun Co. [9] Bank of Japan.

COST-OF-LIVING INDEX NUMBERS (*concluded*)

(*Base: 1929 = 100*)[1]

Country	Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg	Norway	New Zealand	Palestine	Netherlands	Peru [2]	Poland	Portugal
Towns and localities	Riga	104	9	31	4-25	3	Amsterdam	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country
Original base (= 100)	1930	1913	1914	VII, 1914	1926-1930	I, 1922	X. 1923-IX. 1924	1913	1928	VI. 1914
Composition of the index	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-c, e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a, b, e*	*a-e*	*a, c-e*	*a-e*	*a, b, e*
1929	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	100	89	102	97	98	89	96	96	92	95
1931	*91*	83	91	92	90	80	90	90	82	84
1932	*79*	71	79	90	84	82	84	86	74	83
1933	*76*	61	79	89	79	79	83	83	67	83
1934	*72*	57	76	89	81	80	83	85	62	83
1935	*73*	50	74	91	83	79	81	86	60	84
1936	*73*	51	75	93	86	84	79	90	58	86
1937	*79*	56	79	100	92	88	82	96	62	89
1938	*87*	57	81	103	95	85	83	98	61	86
1938: Feb.	*80*	57	81	104	94	86	83	99	61	88
March	*81*	57	81	103	94	86	82	98	60	86
April	*84*	57	81	103	94	84	82	98	61	88
May	*86*	57	81	103	95	83	83	99	61	88
June	*93*	57	82	104	95	83	84	99	60	86
July	*93*	57	81	104	95	84	83	98	60	86
Aug.	*90*	57	82	104	95	84	82	97	60	86
Sept.	*87*	57	81	102	95	85	83	96	60	85
Oct.	*96*	57	82	102	95	86	82 [3]	96	60	85
Nov.	*90*	57	82	102	95	91	82	96	60	84
Dec.	*86*	58	82	102	96	86	82	95	60	83
1939: Jan.	*82*	58	82	102	96	86	—	95	60	—
Feb.	*84*	58	81	102	—	—	—	95	60	—

Country	Southern Rhodesia [4]	Rumania [5]	Sweden	Switzerland	Czecho-Slovakia	Turkey	Union of South Africa	Uruguay [6]	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	6	Bucharest	49	49	Prague	Istanbul	9	Montevideo	Belgrade	3 (Croatia & Slavonia)
Original base (= 100)	1914	1929	VII. 1914	VI. 1914	VII. 1914	I-VI. 1914	1914	1929	1926	VII. 1914
Composition of the index	*a, b, d*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-e*	*a-c, e*	*a-e*
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	100	90	97	98	98	92	98	100	92	92
1931	96	73	94	93	93	87	94	100	87	85
1932	92	62	92	86	92	85	90	99	81	77
1933	87	57	91	81	91	76	88	93	79	66
1934	86	53	91	80	90	75	89	93	75	61
1935	85	56	92	80	92	69	88	96	74	60
1936	85	58	93	81	93	70	88	96	74	61
1937	88	66	95	85	94	71	91	98	78	65
1938	89	75	98	85	99	—	94	98	—	70
1938: Feb.	89	74	*	85	97	72	94	95	84	68
March	89	74	97	85	97	72	94	95	84	69
April	89	75	*	85	98	71	94	95	86	69
May	90	75	*	84	98	70	94	97	88	70
June	90	76	98	85	98	70	94	99	88	71
July	89	74	*	85	98	70	94	99	87	71
Aug.	88	74	*	84	98	70	94	100	87	69
Sept.	88	74	98	85	99	70	93	100	87	69
Oct.	89	75	*	85	100	70	93	99	—	70
Nov.	89	76	*	85	101	70	93	99	—	70
Dec.	89	76	98	85	102	—	94	99	—	70
1939: Jan.	—	75	*	85	105	—	—	102	—	69
Feb.	—	—	*	84	—	—	—	—	—	69

Composition of the indexes: *a* = Food; *b* = Heating and lighting; *c* = Clothing; *d* = Rent; *e* = Miscellaneous.

[1] Except for the series in italics: original base, or recalculated on the nearest possible year to 1929.
[2] Up to September 1933 inclusive, the index does not include heating. [3] Revised series embodying the results of a recent enquiry into rents. [4] New series supplemented by the inclusion of certain items of clothing expenditure.
[5] Series based on the cost of living for a worker's family of 4 persons with a monthly income of about 60 pesos.

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This long and detailed report on secondary education, representing the results of an enquiry on which the Consultative Committee of the British Board of Educa-

tion has been engaged for nearly five years, makes far-reaching recommendations for the reform of the public system of education in Great Britain.

The Committee's terms of reference required it to consider and report upon the organisation and inter-relation of schools for children over the age of 11 " other than those administered under the Elementary Code ", with special regard to the education of pupils who leave school about the age of 16. The Committee therefore took into consideration the education given in the various types of secondary schools, more especially in grammar schools and technical schools, and reached the broad conclusion that " the existing arrangements for the whole time higher education of boys and girls above the age of 11 in England and Wales have ceased to correspond with the actual structure of modern society and with the economic facts of the situation ".

Among a long list of suggestions and recommendations the Committee proposes the establishment of a new type of secondary school for pupils between the ages of 11 and 16-17, to be called technical high schools, and to be equal in status with, but quite distinct from, the traditional academic grammar schools. The curriculum of these schools for pupils between the ages of 11 and 13 would be similar to that of other types of secondary schools of equal status. For pupils above the age of 13 it would be of a more practical nature " designed so as to provide a liberal education, with science and its applications as the core and inspiration ".

The Committee urges the necessity for a thorough reconsideration of both the framework and the content of the curriculum of secondary schools. The studies of the ordinary secondary school should be brought into closer contact than at present with the practical affairs of life and the curriculum be designed to help " every boy and girl to achieve the highest degree of individual development of which he or she is capable ".

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American Home Economics Association. Social Welfare and Public Health Department. *Adequate Family Food Allowances and How to Calculate Them.* New York, Family Welfare Association of America, 1939. 35 pp., tables, typescript. 40 cents.

American Iron and Steel Institute. *Safety in Steel.* New York. 20 pp., illustr.

American Management Association. Personnel Series Nos. 32-35 : (1) *The Status of Industrial Relations.* By T. G. SPATES, C. FAHY, R. L. GREENMAN, and H. L. NUNN. 43 pp. (2) *The Role of the Supervisor in Labor Relations.* By T. G. GRAHAM, A. B. GATES and L. A. APPLEY. 34 pp. (3) *The Practical Nature of Collective Co-operation.* By R. A. LIND, A. S. REGULA, and A. L. KRESS. 44 pp. (4) *Understanding and Training Employees.* By W. J. DICKSON, L. A. APPLEY, M. S. VITELES, and J. H. GOSS. 46 pp. New York, 1938.

These four pamphlets, with a foreword by Mr. Alvin E. DODD, President of the American Management Association, are the result of a Conference on industrial relations held by the American Management Association in Chicago 15-17 February 1938. The Conference, which was organised under the direction of Mr. Thomas G. Spates, made a comprehensive survey of the sweeping changes in the relationship between employer and employee which have occurred in the United States within the last three years. The first pamphlet opens with an article on " The Shifting Scene in Industrial Relations ", by Thomas G. SPATES, describing changes during

1937 and presenting a forecast of developments in personnel administration. This is followed by a note on "The National Labor Relations Board", by Charles FAHY, General Counsel of that Board, and an analysis of "Government Participation in Handling Labor Relations", by Russell L. GREENMAN, specialist in industrial relations to the United States Chamber of Commerce. The concluding article, "A New Concept by Capital of Labor's Relationship in Industry", is contributed by H. L. NUNN, President of the Nunn-Bush Shoe Company, Milwaukee, where his progressive ideas of management find practical application.

The second pamphlet contains two articles on urgent problems of foremanship: "Improving the Foreman-Worker Relationship", by T. G. GRAHAM, and "The Foreman's Place in an Employee Educational Program", by L. A. APPLEY; and also a suggestive article by A. B. GATES, Director of Training of the Eastman Kodak Company, on "Effective Supervisory Training"; the methods of supervisory training described are the "understudy method", the "rotation of assignment method", and the "conference method".

In the third pamphlet, the reader is given the experience and opinions of a former Director of a State Labor Relations Board, Ralph A. LIND, on "Union Agreements and Contracts", and those of a staff member of Industrial Relations Counselors, Albert S. REGULA, on "Employee Representation and Independent Employee Associations". An article on "Sound Wage Payment Policies", by A. L. KRESS, contains valuable suggestions concerning job rating problems.

The fourth pamphlet opens with a detailed description of the "Employee Education and Counseling Programs" introduced and tested by the author, W. J. DICKSON, in the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company. This is followed by an article on "The Application of Psychology in Industrial Relations", by M. S. VITELES, author of *Industrial Psychology* and *The Science of Work* (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXII, No. 1, July 1935, page 142). The concluding article, by John H. Goss, is entitled "Meeting the Employee's Challenge".

—— Office Management Series Nos. 82-85: (1) *Time and Motion Economy in the Office.* By John T. SINKEY and Allan H. MOGENSEN. 27 pp. (2) *Modern Office Management Methods.* By John MITCHELL and others. 36 pp. (3) *Office Personnel Administration.* By E. D. BARTLETT and others. 40 pp. (4) *Efficiency and Economy in Office Procedures.* By E. W. TARR and others. 35 pp. New York, 1938.

In these pamphlets, to which Mr. Alvin E. DODD, contributes a foreword, the reader will find a brief review of recent developments in office management. The second and fourth are of a purely technical character, while the first and third deal with aspects of office work affecting the office employee. Mr. MOGENSON'S study, in particular, deserves attention; it deals with the application of the principles of motion study to office work, not with a view to a general speeding up, but as a means of discovering the best way of doing a job through the elimination of unnecessary motions. The third pamphlet contains the following articles: "Aptitude Tests and the Selection of Office Workers", by E. D. BARTLETT; "Job Evaluation and Salary Standardisation", by John A. WILLIAMS; "Making a Salary Survey", by A. L. KRESS; and "Tests to Determine Objectively the Efficiency of an Industrial Relations Program", by E. R. ROBERTS.

American Society of Planning Officials. *National Conference on Planning. Proceedings of the Conference held at Minneapolis, Minnesota, 20-22 June 1938.* Chicago, 1938. v + 210 pp.

Aspeslagh, Dr. F. M. *De consumptieleer en meer in 't bijzonder het consumptiebegrip in de economische theorie.* Bibliotheek van de Vereeniging voor Economische Wetenschappen. Turnhout, J. van Mierlo-Proost, 1938. 239 pp.

Barfod, Borge. *Local Economic Effects of a Large-Scale Industrial Undertaking.* Published by the Economic Research Department of Aarhus Oliefabrik, A/S, Denmark. Copenhagen, Einar Munksgaard; London, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1938. 74 pp. 3s. 6d.

Bauer, Friedrich. *Taschen- und Armbanduhren-Erzeugung und Sondermaschinen für den Werkzeugbau der Gebrüder Thiel G.M.B.H. Ruhla Thuringen.* Deutsche Grossbetriebe. Band 38. Leipzig, J. J. Arnd, 1938. 56 pp., illustr., diagrams.

Beeby, C. E. *The Education of the Adolescent in New Zealand.* Reprinted from the *Year Book of Education*, 1937. Studies in Education No. 1. New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1937. 28 pp.

After a brief historical sketch of the growth of education in New Zealand, followed by a survey of the present position, the author comes to the central theme of his article, the reconstruction of adolescent education. He summarises the attitude of various educational bodies towards the reorganisation of adolescent education, and, in a short final section, sets out the problems of the future in this connection.

Bernonville, Léo Dugé de. *Initiation à l'analyse statistique.* L'économie politique contemporaine. Collection dirigée par Bertrand NOGARO. Vol. XIX. Paris, Librairie générale de droit et de jurisprudence, 1939. 232 pp.

Besnard, Pierre. *L'éthique du syndicalisme.* Paris, Confédération générale du Travail, 1938. 142 pp. 6 frs.

Boston Conference on Distribution, 1938. Boston Chambers of Commerce, Retail Trade Board, 1938. 125 pp., diagrams.

Brown, W. Henry. *The Silken Glow of Macclesfield. With the Jubilee History of the Macclesfield Silk Manufacturing Society Limited.* Manchester, Co-operative Printing Society. 61 pp., illustr.

In tracing the history and conditions of silk manufacturing in England from the sixteenth century, the author emphasises the part played by the town of Macclesfield in the development of the industry, and describes the successful application of co-operative principles by the Macclesfield Silk Manufacturing Society, founded in 1888, whose pioneer work has led to high standards of employment.

Brucculeri, Angelo. *Lo Stato e l'individuo.* Le dottrine sociali del Cattolicismo. Quaderno VII. Rome, "La Civiltà cattolica", 1938. 62 pp. 4 lire.

Study of the rôle of the State and the "totalitarian" conception of it. The author, who writes from the Catholic standpoint, points out that the rôle of the State is not to create law, but to discover, recognise, determine, and sanction, law, which is anterior to it and has its source in human nature.

Burger, D. J. *Veiligheidswenken voor den Landbouw. Het voorkomen van landbouwongevallen. Tweede druk, 1938.* Rotterdam, Coöperatieve Aankoopvereeniging, Centraal Bureau uit het Nederlandsch Landbouw-Comité. 48 pp., illustr. 10 cents.

Calderon Barra, Angel. *Transformación de la Huelga Económica en Medio de Acción Politica contra el Estado. (Concepción Marxista). Legislación sobre Huelga en Chile; Evolución Histórico Social del Movimento Obrero.* Memoria de Prueba para Optar al grado de Licenciado en la Facultad de Ciencias Juridicas y Sociales de la Universidad de Chile. Santiago, La Gratitud Nacional, 1937. 63 pp.

Clark, Colin, and Crawford, J. G. *The National Income of Australia.* Sydney, London, Angus and Robertson, 1938. VIII + 120 pp.

Cole, G. D. H. *Living Wages. The Case for a New Minimum Wage Act.* London, Victor Gollancz and the New Fabian Research Bureau, 1938. 32 pp. 6d.

Coliche, Emile. *La condition des représentants, voyageurs et placiers du commerce et d'industrie. La loi du 18 juillet 1937. Préparation. Dispositions. Application.* Préface de Gaston ROGÉ. Lille, Société anonyme d'imprimerie et d'éditions du Nord, 1938. 292 pp.

Comité central des armateurs de France. *Annuaire de la marine marchande 1938. Arrêté au 1er janvier 1938.* Paris, 1938. 1,016 pp.

Comité central industriel de Belgique. *Assurance-chômage obligatoire. Note sur le projet de loi soumis au Sénat.* Reprinted from the *Bulletin* of the Comité central industriel, 28 September 1938. 36 pp.

Confédération générale du travail de Belgique. *Compte rendu sténographique du XXXI^e Congrès syndical tenu le 4 juillet 1938 à Bruxelles, et du Congrès démonstratif des jeunesses syndicales tenu le 2 juillet 1938 à Bruxelles.* Brussels, 1938. 103 pp.

Coronet, Rafael Q. *Estudio Médico Social de la Tuberculosis Pulmonar en la Region Interandina del Ecuador.* Quito, Imprenta Municipal, 1938. x + 329 pp.

Croner, Dr. Fritz. *Sociala attityder och den empiriska sociologin.* Reprinted from *Statsvetenskaplig Tidskrift* h. 3-4 1938. Lund. 24 pp.

Democratic Sweden. A Volume of Studies prepared by Members of the New Fabian Research Bureau. Edited by Margaret Cole and Charles Smith. London, George Routledge, 1938. 344 pp. 12s. 6d.

This volume presents the results of a study made by a party of members of the New Fabian Research Bureau which went to Sweden in the summer of 1937 for the purpose of gathering factual information on social, economic and political conditions. In eighteen chapters a detailed description is given of different aspects of life in Sweden, based on interviews and analyses of printed reports.

Der neue Brockhaus. Encyclopaedia in four volumes, with atlas. Vol. IV. S-Z. Leipzig, 1938. 846 pp.

Dominik, Hans. *Der Werkzeugmaschinen- und Werkzeugbau Fritz Werner A. G. Berlin.* Zweite, erweiterte Auflage. Deutsche Grossbetriebe. Band 17. Leipzig, J. J. Arnd, 1938. 118 pp., illustr. 12.30 marks.

Duda-Dziewierz, Krystyna. *Wieś malopolska a emigracja amerykanska. Studium wsi Babica powiatu rzeszowskiego.* Biblioteka socjologiczna. Tom trzeci. Warsaw, Polski Instytut Socjologiczny, 1938. x + 152 pp., illustr.

Study of the influence of emigration to the United States on social development in the rural areas of southern Poland. In the author's opinion, only a close analysis of the emigration movement considered from the standpoint of living conditions in a particular locality can throw light on the social changes that result from migration or are connected with it. The enquiry on which the study is based was therefore confined to a single village. This village is studied from the standpoints of its social topography, the history of emigration from that spot, the social traditions of the emigrants, and their careers abroad. The author then examines the effects of emigration on social changes in the village, and reaches the conclusion that none of the changes observed can be attributed exclusively to the influence of emigration, pointing out that all the emigrants considered, after their return to their native village, resumed the social standing they had before leaving it. The effect of emigration is thus confined to strengthening existing tendencies and helping to bring about changes that are already taking place.

Ejchler, Z. *Bezpieczenstwo Pracy na Zrebach.* Warsaw, Prasa Lesna, 1939. 61 pp.

Employee Partnership Institute. *Employee-Partnership under Fire.* Towards Economic Citizenship, No. 7. Hamilton (N.Z.), 31 pp. 1s.

Feller, A., and Hurwitz, J. E. *How to Operate under the Wage-Hour Law.* New York, Alexander Publishing Co., 1938. vii + 248 pp.

A helpful handbook containing a history of the United States Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, an analysis of its provisions, an explanation of the methods of administration, and a definition of the concept of interstate commerce in relation to the scope of the Act. The appendices include a summary of relevant decisions of the National Labor Relations Board and the full texts of the Fair Labor Standards Act and the administrative rules and regulations issued up to the date of publication.

Gasser, Eduard. *Die Massnahmen der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft auf dem Gebiete der landwirtschaftlichen Kredithilfe von 1928 bis zum Entwurf eines Entschuldungsgesetzes von 1936.* Dissertation der rechts- und staatswissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Universität Zurich zur Erlangung der Würde eines Doktors der Volkswirtschaft. Lachen, A. Kessler, 1938. 141 pp.

Geck, L. H. A. *Soziale Betriebsführung.* Arbeit und Wissen. Herausgegeben von H. Paul Wels. Band 2. Munich, Berlin, C. H. Beck, 1938. vi + 130 pp. 1.65 marks.

Students of social science and particularly of management are acquainted with the constructive work of the " Institut für Betriebssoziologie und soziale Betriebslehre " at the " Technische Hochschule " in Berlin. They have regretted its liquidation in 1937 and will welcome this book, which the author, a former member of the staff of the Institute describes as a final account of its scientific work. He attempts at the same time to outline what he calls the " science of social management ", which is concerned with " industrial relations " and " personnel management ". A historical survey of its development is given, as well as a useful description of the situation in the United States, Great Britain, France, Switzerland, and Germany. One chapter deals with the various tasks of personnel administration, another with the use of spare time.

Gillespie, James J. *The Principles of Rational Industrial Management.* London, Pitman, 1938. xv + 229 pp. 10s. 6d.

The author, a management consultant and writer of a valuable book on *Training in Foremanship and Management* (cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXXIV, No. 3, September 1936, page 420), deprecates the use of the term " scientific management ", and criticises this school of management on the ground that it ignores the psychological and social values of industrial fact. He considers that Taylor overstressed the value of his theory. After these criticisms, he turns to the admittedly more difficult task " of finding in the combination of the high personal values of pre-scientific management and modern knowledge a sensible management philosophy " to be comprehended in the term " rational management ". As a result of his efforts to solve the problem, he puts forward the following definition : " Rational Management is personal conduct based on intelligent acceptance of the disciplines arising from its service of the dual purpose of industrial, social and economic effectiveness and on adoption of a rational, unbiased attitude to the problems of industrial production and distribution and to the contributions of the sciences to the solution of these problems." Outstanding points in the author's argument are a reference to the contributions of bio-psychology and sociology, the importance of authority and obedience in management, the acceptance by management of social responsibility, and the necessity of integrating economic and social purpose. Chapter XVI contains a management educational syllabus in line with the findings of the book. A summary of the principles of rational industrial management is given in the concluding chapter.

Helbeck, Dr. Günter. *Die Kapitalfrage im ländlichen Siedlungswesen.* Emsdetten, H. and J. Lechte, 1938. 103 pp.

Hernández Ron, J.M. *Tratado Elemental de Derecho Administrativo. Obra ajustada a la legislación vigente en Venezuela.* Caracas, Tipografía Americana, 1937. Vol. I, 643 pp. Vol. II, 651 pp.

In this work, the first of its kind published in Venezuela, Dr. J. M. Hernández Ron, Professor of Administrative Law and Special Legislation in the University of Caracas, gives the reader the benefit of his profound knowledge of the subject and of his extensive professional experience.

The treatise is divided into four parts : the first states the principles of general and comparative administrative law ; the second deals with Venezuelan administrative organisation ; the third with essential administrative services ; and the fourth with optional administrative services. These are followed by a study of administrative judicial practice in Venezuela.

The work is of considerable interest, not only to professional jurists and students of law, but to anyone wishing to become acquainted with the origin, evolution, and present organisation, of administrative services in Venezuela.

Höhlmann, Ingeborg. *Der Frauen- und Kinderschutz in der Heimarbeit.* Inaugural-Dissertation zur Erlangung der Doktorwürde der Hohen Juristischen Fakultät der Friedrich-Wilhelms-Universität zu Berlin. Saalfeld, Gunther, 1937. xii + 127 pp.

The author first describes the important part played by home work in the

German national economy and the legal position of home workers. After an account of the origin and development of home work in rural and urban areas, he outlines the bad living conditions that result from it and the problems connected with the regulation of working hours and the remuneration of this form of work. These problems are then considered from the standpoint of the protection of women and children. The relevant legislation is discussed, in particular the provisions of the Act of 23 March 1934 and the employment rules which have taken the place of collective agreements.

Houser, J. David. *What People Want from Business.* Introduction by A. W. ROBERTSON. New York, London, McGraw-Hill, 1938. xi + 250 pp. $2.50.

An analysis of some sociological problems on original lines. The author analyses the views of the employee as well as those of the consumer and attempts to arrive at a satisfactory integration of them. The conclusions of the study are summarised in a comprehensive two-page " Thesis ".

Huber, Michel. *Cours de démographie et de statistique sanitaire.* I. *Introduction à l'étude des statistiques démographiques et sanitaires.* 67 pp. II. *Méthodes d'élaboration des statistiques démographiques (recensements, état civil, migrations).* 110 pp. Actualités scientifiques et industrielles, 598 et 599. Institut de statistique de l'Université de Paris. Paris, Hermann, 1938.

Huston, Wendell. *Social Welfare Laws of the Forty-eight States.* Seattle, Wendell Huston, 1937.

Idenburg, Philip J. *Les écoles des Pays-Bas.* Avec une préface de Son Excellence le Ministre de l'Instruction, des Beaux Arts et des Sciences. The Hague, van Stockum. 82 pp., illustr.

This study, which is abundantly illustrated, gives an account of public education in the Netherlands. Different chapters deal with preparatory teaching in infant schools, primary education, supplementary courses, secondary education, technical education and training in domestic economy, agricultural training, school hygiene, and higher education.

Industrial Welfare Society. *Report of Conference on Workers' Holidays, London, 30 November 1938.* London, 1938. 24 pp.

Informationsbyran Mellanfolkligt Samarbete för Fred. *Internationella arbetsfragor.* Special number of *Mellanfolkligt Samarbete*, No. 8, 1938. Stockholm 60 pp.

This special number of the review *Mellanfolkligt Samarbete* (International Collaboration) reproduces lectures on international labour problems delivered at a summer school organised in August 1938 at Jakobsberg, Sweden, by the Northern Bureau of Information on International Collaboration, in conjunction with the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions and the Swedish Co-operative Union.

Instytut Spraw Spolecznych. *Kalendarz bezpieczenstwa i higieny pracy na rok 1939.* Seria wydawnictw " Zycie i Praca " Nr. 10. Warsaw, 1939. 124 pp.

Calendar for 1939, devoted to industrial hygiene and safety, published by the Polish Institute for Social Problems.

Jacquemyns, Guillaume. *La réforme des barèmes de traitements. Le minimum vital de foyer. La cadence des augmentations. Le point d'aisance. Le traitement organique et les accessoires.* Université libre de Bruxelles, Institut de sociologie Solvay. Brussels, G. van Campenhout, 1939. 34 pp.

J. M. E. L. *Comment assurer à chacun le salaire minimum vital dans l'équilibre économique. Financement des grands travaux.* Paris, Editions Baudinière, 1937. 94 pp. 3 frs.

Collection of articles devoted to the financing of public works. The author advocates in particular a real estate tax, which, in his opinion, would enable a big programme of works to be put in hand.

Kahra, Eljas. *Valtio ja työpalkat.* Helsingfors, 1937. 87 pp.
Study on wages and the State.

Kalkman, Dr. Wolfgang. *Entwicklung und Probleme der Agrarpreispolitik seit dem Weltkrieg im Britischen Reich, in den Vereinigen Staaten und anderen Überseeländern.* Würzburg, Konrad Triltsch, 1938. v + 63 pp.

Kemnitzer, William J. *Rebirth of Monopoly. A Critical Analysis of Economic Conduct in the Petroleum Industry of the United States.* New York, London, Harper, 1938. 261 pp.

Keyserling, Leon H. *The United States Housing Authority in the Framework of American Government and Law.* Cleveland, Section of Municipal Law, American Bar Association, 1938. 19 pp., typescript.

Kulp, C. A. *Social Insurance Co-ordination. An Analysis of German and British Organization.* Report prepared for the Committee on Social Security. Washington, Committee on Social Security, Social Science Research Council, 1938. xiv + 333 pp. $2.50.

In the United States social security is in the stage of rapid growth, and the extension of the insurance principle to fresh risks appears imminent. In these circumstances the problem of the form to be given to the organisation of the complete insurance system becomes urgent. One very important aspect of this problem is that of the mode of co-ordination of the several branches of insurance. From a study of the two great and mature systems of Germany and Great Britain, similar in scope and function but contrasting in their organisation, Professor Kulp has deduced a set of general principles for guidance in the planning of the future American system. British and German experience shows that always there are pre-existing institutions and traditions which demand a place and expression in a new scheme of social insurance. There is thus no one ideal form of organisation, suitable for all countries, but every country must construct on the basis of the situation which has already developed. Much intelligence and foresight, however, are needed in the skilful utilisation of the materials, and are best exercised at the earliest stage, for social insurance institutions soon become rigid and resistant to change. One of the many interesting discussions to be found in this book is that of the relation between centralisation and co-ordination, the latter being shown to be mainly the result of the former. Another concerns the conditions and outlook for self-government in social insurance, the present situation in Germany being examined with particular care ; in an American system, the author considers that self-government would fail owing to lack of interest on the part of employers and workers.

Kwiatkowski, Eugeniusz. *Obraz gospodarstwa Polski w roku 1937.* Przemowienie wygloszone w Sejmie w dn. 1 grudnia 1937 r. Warsaw, Polska Gospodarcza, 1937. 74 pp.

Kyocho Kai. Sangyo Fukuri Bu. (Association for Harmonious Co-operation between Capital and Labour. Division of Industrial Welfare.) *Dai Jukkai Zenkoku Anzen Shukan Hokoku.* (Report of Tenth National Safety Week.) Tokyo, 1938. 198 pp.

Lacerda, Joao M. de. *Situaçao Economica e Financeira do Brazil (1930 a 1936).* Rio de Janeiro, 1937. 162 pp.

Lang, Dr. Laurenz. *Geburt, Krankheit und Tod bei den reichgesetzlichen Krankenkassen.* Berlin, 1938. 47 pp., illustr.

Sickness funds are required to furnish certain data on membership and claims for the compilation of the statistics published annually by the German Government. In the author's opinion, however, further elaboration of the data available is desirable in order to enable investigations to be made into the causes of sickness, which may be personal, occupational or environmental. Dr. Lang reviews and criticises the different classifications (by diseases, occupation, and age) that have been adopted in various statistical reports, and points out the need for a social and economic diagnosis of each case of sickness, in addition to the medical diagnosis.

After discussing the most appropriate technique of compiling statistics, he recommends standard tables providing, among other classifications, for the classification of cases and days of incapacity by sex, occupation, and disease groups, and of cases of incapacity, sickness, and death, by disease and age as well as by occupation and age. He considers, moreover, that statistics should be compiled of the cases treated by each insurance practitioner, showing the average duration, the number of hospital cases, etc.; a special table should be devoted to institutional treatment, and cases referred to medical examining officers should also be abulated.

Légaut, Marcel. *La communauté humaine. Essai de spiritualité sociale.* Paris, Fernand Aubier, 1938. 229 pp. 18 frs.

Essay on the development of the human community. Nationalism, the author says, which followed the era of local particularism, is only a stage. The future society of nations will be the continued affirmation of the universal movement towards unity which gave birth to the different fatherlands. But just as a well-conceived international organisation brings into harmony and directs towards a common goal the different nations without denying them, so it would be vain and fatal to attempt to suppress the different social classes by crushing out all except one. Social classes are necessary, not as classes, but as an expression of solidarity between men devoted to the same tasks. They should not therefore be regarded as a hierarchy, or as being subordinate one to another. What should disappear is the anti-social element, not only in the material exploitation of one class by another, but also in the subordination inevitably engendered by the great difference in income.

Lewis, John L. *Report of Chairman John L. Lewis to the First Constitutional Convention of the C.I.O., Pittsburgh, 14 November 1938.* Pittsburgh, Committee for Industrial Organization, 1938. 65 pp.

Lindquist, E. F. *A First Course in Statistics. Their Use and Interpretation in Education and Psychology.* London, George G. Harrap, 1938. xi + 226 pp., diagrams.

Lint, Paul van. *Incidence de la main-d'oeuvre sur les prix de revient de diverses industries belges. Résultats d'une enquête.* Brussels, Comité central industriel de Belgique, 1938. 32 pp.

This pamphlet summarises the results of an enquiry undertaken by the Belgian Central Industrial Committee among Belgian industrial undertakings. It shows for each branch of industry covered the percentage of total costs of production accounted for in 1936 by operatives' wages, not including employers' social insurance contributions or payments in kind. The percentages given for each branch are weighted averages of the percentages computed for varying numbers of individual undertakings. A table summarises all the results, which range from 4 per cent. in road paving to 70 per cent. in porphyry quarrying. It may be noted that the industries whose direct wage costs represent more than 50 per cent. of total costs all belong to the mining and quarrying group. A similar enquiry was undertaken in 1933.

Martius, Dr. Friedrich. *Betriebsgefahren in der chemischen Industrie. Ein Leitfaden der Unfallbekämpfung und Krankheitsverhütung.* Herausgegeben im Einvernehmen mit der Wirtschaftsgruppe Chemische Industrie und der Deutschen Arbeitsfront, Fachamt Chemie. Berlin, Wilhelm Limpert, 1939. 360 pp. 3.50 marks.

Maurette, Fernand. *Internationella Arbetsorganisationen.* Translated from the French. Stockholm, Kooperativa förbundets bokförlag, 1938. 195 pp.

McKenney, Ruth. *Industrial Valley.* New York, Harcourt Brace, 1939. 379 pp. $3.

Mok, S. *Hervorming van het ontslagrecht.* Amsterdam, Nederlandsch Verbond van Vakvereenigingen, 1937. 16 pp.

In this lecture, given on 18 October 1937 before a Social Economic Congress organised by the Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions, the author urges better protection for the workers in case of dismissal. He examines the French and the

German laws relating to the subject, the practice established in collective agreements, and the recent relevant legislation in the Netherlands ; he concludes that a reform of the Civil Code in that country can alone improve the position of the dismissed worker.

Muller, Albert. *Notes d'économie politique.* Deuxième série. *La circulation et la distribution des biens.* Paris, Editions Spes, 1938. 504 pp.

In a former volume of notes on economic policy, the author examined the question of the production and distribution of wealth. The present volume, which is less philosophical and more technical in character, is devoted to the problems of monetary circulation (money and exchange, loans and banks, the stock exchange and speculation, and international trade).

Mumford, Lewis. *Men Must Act.* New York, Harcourt Brace, 1939. 176 pp. Cloth, $1.50 ; paper, $0.75.

National Association of Manufacturers of the United States of America. *New Federal Wage-Hour Law. " The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 ".* Supplement to *N.A.M. Law Digest*, Vol. 1, No. 8, 18 June 1938. 16 pp. New York.

Contains a useful short history and analysis and the full text of the United States Labor Standards Act of 1938.

National Bureau of Economic Research. *Report of the Committee on Prices in the Bituminous Coal Industry.* Prepared for the Conference on Price Research. New York, 1938. xx + 144 pp.

National Council of Social Service. *Partnership in Social Effort. The Eighteenth Annual Report for the Year ending 31 March 1938.* London. 91 pp., illustr.

National Municipal League. *Social Security. Progress and Prospects.* Edited by Zilpha C. FRANKLIN. New York, 1937. 31 pp. 50 cents.

The United States Social Security Act has important implications for municipal authorities in that it introduces Federal responsibility for social assistance measures which were formerly the concern of the State and local governments alone. This pamphlet contains a number of articles reprinted from the *National Municipal Review*, on various aspects of the social security programme.

Nederlandsch Verbond van Vakverenigingen. *Sociale Verzekering. Rapport uitgebracht door een Commissie uit N.V.V. en S.D.A.P. Augustus 1938.* Amsterdam. 105 pp.

A Joint Committee appointed by the Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions and the Social Democratic Labour Party sets out in this report a detailed plan for the reorganisation of social insurance in the Netherlands. The Committee's main proposals are to extend social insurance to independent workers of small means, to include domestic servants under the sickness insurance scheme, and to make insurance for medical benefit compulsory for all persons with an income of less than 3,000 florins a year. The administration of social insurance, the Committee considers, should be reorganised with a view to abolishing competition between different kinds of institutions for the membership of employers under sickness and accident insurance. Insurance against temporary loss of wages (covering minor accidents and sickness) should be carried by industrial funds formed by employers' and workers' organisations jointly and insuring all workers within an industry ; the administration of these branches of insurance, however, should be entrusted to regional councils representing employers' and workers' organisations. Old-age, invalidity and widows' and orphans' insurance, and insurance against permanent loss of wages and ill-health due to industrial accidents, should be administered and carried by the Insurance Council, a State institution replacing the State Insurance Bank.

Insurance for medical benefit in case of sickness should be an independent branch of insurance carried and administered mainly by the existing medical funds created by private initiative, under State supervision.

Pending a general reorganisation of social insurance on these lines, the Committee advocates State pensions for persons aged 65 or over whose income is below 800

florins a year, the financial reorganisation of pension insurance, the extension of sickness insurance to all employed persons, including domestic servants, and compulsory insurance for independent workers, as well as a restriction of the number of joint employers' and workers' funds and their reorganisation on industrial lines.

Nitsen, Dr. R. van. *Les sociétés coloniales et la crise de la main-d'oeuvre indigène.* Etude parue dans la *Dépêche coloniale belge* et l'*Essor colonial et maritime* des 3, 17 et 24 septembre 1938. Brussels, J. Flament, 1938. 21 pp., illustr.

Occupations and Vocational Guidance. A Source List of Pamphlet Material. Compiled by Wilma BENNETT. Third edition revised. New York, H. W. Wilson, 1938. 160 pp. $1.25.

A valuable bibliographical guide to pamphlet material relating to occupations and vocational guidance. Part I is arranged alphabetically by the names of the organisations issuing the pamphlets mentioned, and Part II contains a full subject index to the pamphlets listed in Part I. The present edition is revised to November 1938.

Österreichische Genossenschaftsverbandes. *Mitteilungen über den 61. Genossenschaftstag des österreichischen Genossenschaftsverbandes abgehalten zu Wien am 9. Juli 1938.* Herausgegeben von Paul POINDECKER. Vienna, 1938. 43 pp.

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Describes cultivation on small farms in Poland.

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This study, which is devoted to the problem of public works, deals in the first part with the principles of financing, the choice of projects, the remuneration of workers employed, etc. In the second part, the author analyses the Federal and cantonal policies relating to public works in Switzerland during the period 1930 to 1938.

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